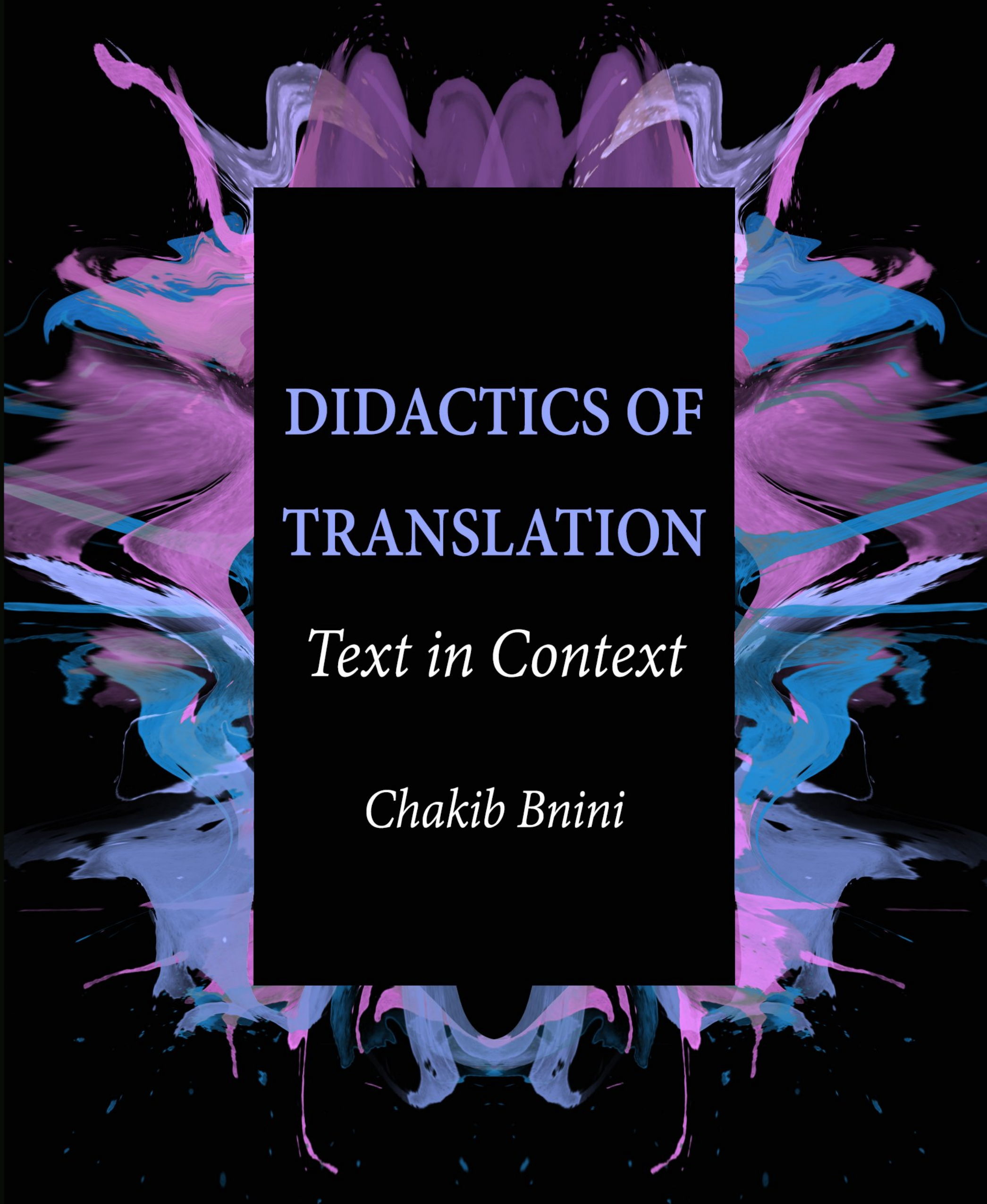

DIDACTICS OF TRANSLATION

Text in Context

Chakib Bnini

Didactics of Translation

Didactics of Translation:

Text in Context

By

Chakib Bnini

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Didactics of Translation: Text in Context

By Chakib Bnini

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To my family

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PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The main purpose of this work is to derive empirical evidence for the didactic value of translating text in context by conducting an experiment involving final-year undergraduate students who study translation (English-Arabic-English) as a basic component of the curriculum. A number of theoretical frameworks are invoked, most notably those of the discourse model elaborated by Hatim and Mason (1990) (1997) and of House's text analysis model (1997). The experiment design draws on Hatim's multi-stage curriculum translation design (2000: 182) which consists of various stages representing an increasing degree of evaluativeness and difficulty. Following each major phase of the experiment (covering register, text types, genre and discourse), the students are evaluated using the pre-test / post-test technique and interviews. It was hoped that the experiment would shed light first on the students' mode of assimilating each of these areas of context and second on the effect of the training in the development of an overall discourse awareness. As documented in the chapters on analysis and conclusions, very convincing evidence emerged which indicates the inestimable value of incorporating text, discourse and genre insights into the training of translators.

I would like to express my gratitude to Professor Basil Hatim, for his guidance and encouragement. I am also indebted to my colleagues from the different universities in Morocco for answering the questionnaire and to my students for their collaboration during the translation experiments. A special word of thanks goes to my colleagues in the English Department of Ben Msik Faculty for their support, and more particularly to Dr. Abdelmajid Bouziane and to Dr. Taoufik Jaafari for their cooperation during the final production stage of this work.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BCE:	Before Common Era
CC:	Contextual configuration
CD:	Communicative Dynamism
CE:	Common era
CS:	Context of situation
DTS:	Descriptive Translation Studies
E:	Evaluative
Th TS:	Theoretical Translation Studies
FSP:	Functional Sentence Perspective
GSP:	Generic Structure Potential
M:	Marked
SAR:	Students attending regularly
SAI:	Students attending irregularly
SE:	Scale of evaluativeness
SL:	Source language
SM:	Scale of markedness
T:	Text
TAPs:	Talk aloud protocols
TL:	Target language
TT:	Target text

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It was specifically in the second half of the 20th century that legitimately scientific approaches to the study of translation began to appear. This led to the emergence of Translation Studies as a new academic discipline and to the proliferation of a literature devoted to the study of translating and translations. Translation Teaching, as a branch of Applied Translation Studies, has, for its part, benefited a great deal from the theoretical findings and insights yielded by the various branches of Translation Studies. The didactic aspect has, thus, gradually witnessed an expansion of its own literature, which has addressed a variety of subjects, including the relation between pedagogical theory and practice, the legitimacy of formal and academic training, the contents of translation teaching courses, subject specialization, the relation between translation teaching and language teaching, translation assessment, and also the qualifications and qualities required of translation teachers. (Chau 1984: 20)

There are several translation training institutions which have sought to implement the findings of translation teaching research. However, many academic institutions, at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels, are still at a stage where translation courses continue to suffer from serious deficiencies. According to (Kiraly 1995: 01),

> Translation students attend classes and earn degrees in translation studies, but courses in translation skills instruction are usually not based on a coherent set of pedagogical principles derived from knowledge about the aims of translation instruction, the nature of translation competence, and an understanding of the effects of classroom instruction on students' translating proficiency. The pedagogical gap represents the dearth of systematic approaches to the teaching of translation skills … This gap persists despite a limited but growing literature in the field of translator training. (1995: 5)

Having taught translation (English/Arabic/English) to Moroccan university students at the undergraduate level for many years, I have reached the conclusion, just like Kiraly did above, that teaching at this level suffers from many deficiencies concerning the goals of teaching the course. This involves (1), a general lack of understanding of the nature of translating competence (2), a generally poor course content, and a non-systematic approach to the teaching of translation (3), a generally low linguistic level on the part of students with misconceived ideas about the nature of translation, and finally, (4) the non-availability of competent translation trainers.

With respect to students' general linguistic level and their misconceptions about what a translation course is designed to achieve, it is not uncommon to find that many students have an inadequate knowledge of the source language (Arabic), a rather poor level of English (often making serious mistakes in grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation), a lack of general knowledge, a general tendency to regard translating as a simple transcoding operation or as a mere test of the comprehension of a foreign language text. With regard to the non-availability of competent translation trainers, Mehrach describes the situation in Moroccan universities by first noting that Moroccan translation teachers are not trained in the didactics of translation and secondly that they concentrate on "minor grammatical errors", which "obscures the student's ability to correct major, i.e. textual, errors". (Mehrach 2003: 5)

Similarly, Farghal describes the situation with reference to universities throughout the Arab world. According to Farghal, the ever-increasing demand for translators on the job market "has caught these universities off-guard in terms of the availability of competent translator trainers". These institutions, therefore, had to make do with what was available, i. e. assigning "the task of translation training to bilingual academics specializing in literature or linguistics who neither have sufficient theoretical background in translation studies nor do they have the interest and/or motivation to familiarize themselves with translation studies as adequately established subdisciplines of applied linguistics." (2000: 85)

This book will tackle one aspect of the issue of translation teaching content, namely, the interpretive aspect -as opposed to the grammatical and cultural aspects- with the emphasis to be laid on text, genre and discourse.

The main goals are:

a) to test the claim that discourse analysis could give learners some insight and help them adopt an efficient translating strategy. According to Heliel (1994), while discourse is a field which is increasingly gaining in importance in English, teaching materials adopting a discourse analysis approach for translation purposes are yet to be written.

b) to try to contribute to the process of the "professionalization" of translation teaching initiated in the last few decades. Many translation scholars have argued, with good reason, that the training of translators "should be institutionalized and given a sound methodological basis" (Kussmaul 1995: 2), (Chua 1984: 17), (Baker 1992: 1- 4), (Mauriello 1992: 64). With regard to translation assessment, Mason (1987: 79-80) calls for "standardisation and consistency of grading in translation testing".

The present work on the didactics of translation adopts the assumptions, principles, and methods of the contrastive discourse model developed by Hatim and Mason (1990) (1997). It also makes use of insights yielded by House's text analysis and translation quality model. With regard to translation teaching, the value of these models lies firstly in their putting forward suggestions for the systematization of translation problems. Second, these approaches make a serious attempt to objectify translation evaluation. Third, they make an important contribution to laying down a number of principles for the selection of translation teaching material.

Discourse analysis is used in these models as a means for dissecting texts in order to unravel the way language communicates meaning and social power relations. Thus, in considering meaning, which is central in translation, the translator using these models has to be extra vigilant with regard to the speaker's / writer's linguistic choices in their relation to a wide-ranging socio-cultural context. Texts are consequently decoded in terms of three dimensions of context: a communicative dimension (register), a pragmatic dimension (intentionality) and a semiotic dimension (language embracing culture). It is believed that both language users, in general, and translators in particular, resort to these dimensions of context during the communication process. Haddad (1995: 264) persuasively argues in favour of Hatim and Mason's discourse model to translation, stating that "the pragma-semiotic model is the best to address translation in general… since it studies text in context, taking into consideration the three dimensions (register, pragmatics and semiotics) and since it seeks to preserve the pragmatic as well as the semiotic aspects of signs."

This book consists of six chapters. Chapter I is the introduction and deals with the aims for writing the book. It also gives a presentation of the research model followed. Chapter II deals with Translation Studies as a new academic discipline that is asserting itself slowly but surely in academic circles. First, the use of the name Translation Studies is adopted instead of the term ‘translation’ which is thought to be ambiguous, referring to both translation as a subject matter and to translating as an activity (Holmes 1972). Second, the various branches and sub-branches of translation studies are outlined.

The importance of translation theory for the translator is also tackled in chapter II. The distinction is made between a theory of translating vs. a theory of translation, and between a general translation theory vs. partial translation theories. Finally, an overview of the main approaches to translation is carried out by comparing and evaluating three surveys that have been conducted for this purpose by Chau (1984), Venuti (2000) and Munday (2001).

Chapter III looks at two main approaches to translation: non-text-based approaches (the grammatical and cultural models) compared with text-based approaches (the hermeneutic and textlinguistic approaches). The textlinguistic approach which constitutes the focal point in this book is then dealt with in more detail, starting with defining the notion of text in textlinguistics and then reviewing the main studies concerning the development of a linguistics of text (context in relation to text, register, register variation, register in relation to culture, text structure and texture, thematic structure and information structure). This section finally ends with a discussion of the validity and legitimacy of the textlinguistic approach. Following this theoretical overview of the various aspects of textlinguistics, there is a section on the application of textlinguistics in the field of translation. This section deals more particularly with the notion of parallel texts (Neubert 1981), House’s text analysis model (1997), and the contrastive discourse model advocated by Hatim and Mason (1990) (1997) (the communicative, pragmatic and semiotic dimensions of context). Within the semiotic dimensions, particular attention is given to the notions of text, genre and discourse.

Chapter IV deals with the following points: translator competence and translator training, translation teaching in relation to foreign language studies, formal academic training in translation, the scope of translation teaching, an overview of translation pedagogy in the second half of the twentieth century in Germany, France, Italy and in the Arab World, a review of some current methodologies for the training of translators (first, the process-oriented translation methods represented by Kussmaul (1995) and Kiraly (1995) are reviewed, followed by some textlinguistic translation methods); the last point in this chapter is concerned with translation assessment.

Chapter V is devoted to a translation teaching experiment. Prior to reporting on the experiment, the aims are stated and the design of the experiment is explained along with the teaching method to be pursued and the content of the translation lessons to be delivered. The informants' performance in the experiment is measured using pre-tests and post-tests with respect to the following points of investigation: register, genre, text types and discourse. Between the pre-tests and post-tests, the points of investigation are addressed formally in class through lectures, discussions and some exercises. After each pre-test or post-test, the informants are interviewed and some concluding statements about the results of their performances are made. The last section in this chapter analyzes the informants' feedback to the various aspects of the experiment: the degree of difficulty of the course, the degree of assimilation, the progress / non-progress made in the course… Chapter VI is the site of conclusion and implications.

CHAPTER II

TRANSLATION STUDIES

2.1 The concept of translation

Before addressing the main issue of this book, namely, the didactics of translation, a word about the concept and the nature of translation is in order. Clarifying this concept and understanding the nature of translation is of paramount importance in defining the boundaries of this activity, dispelling confusion and avoiding misunderstanding.

For Munday (2001: 4), the term translation subsumes different meanings. It can be used to refer either to the subject field, to the product or to the process. Process means the act of rendering a source text (ST) into a target text (TT). Roman Jakobson uses the terms “interlingual translation” or “translation proper” to refer to this act (Jakobson 1959). The characterisation of the concept of translation as a product and as a process is useful both in theory and in practice. Such a dichotomy clearly defines the boundaries for different areas of research.

Nida (1969) also gives a detailed description of the concept of translation as a process. However, the term “process” is here used interchangeably with an equivalent term, namely, “translating”:

> Translating is basically not a process of matching surface rules of correspondence, but rather a more complex procedure involving analysis, transfer and restructuring. (Nida 1969: 80)

According to Nida (1969), the analysis process subsumes at least three sets of procedures:

A. analyzing the grammatical relationship between constituent parts
B. analyzing meanings of semantic units
C. analyzing the connotative values of the grammatical structures and semantic units

The transfer process which, according to Nida, occurs at a kernel or near kernel-level, consists of three different types of redistribution of the componential structure:

A. complete redistribution as is the case with idioms
B. analytical redistribution, where one SL word is decomposed into several words in the TL
C. synthesis of components, where several SL words are rendered by one word in the TL

Concerning the restructuring process, this is, according to Nida, contingent upon the target language system. Such restructuring has to take into account two aspects of the target language: the formal aspect (style, genre determination) and the functional or dynamic aspect (achieving similar response in the TL).

For Kussmaul (1995: 9), translation is a particular kind of process; it is a problem-solving process:

> Translation is not only a skill but a problem-solving process. If translation were a skill like, say, driving a car, professionalism could be achieved once and for all. The correct actions for driving can be internalized, and the normal driving situations are mastered without any mental conscious effort. With problem-solving activities like translating, internalization of strategies and techniques is only part of the process. There will always be situations when we have to make a conscious effort, and it is in these situations that we often get the feeling that we are, alas, semi professionals only.

Similarly, Hatim and Mason (1990: 3) have drawn attention to the importance of the concept “process”. For them translating is regarded as a communicative process which takes place within a social context. This is crucial and the authors warn against any neglect of the distinction which characterizes any text, namely, the distinction between process and product:

> If we treat a text merely as a self-contained and self-generating entity, instead of as a decision-making procedure and an instance of communication between language users, our understanding of the nature of translating will be impaired. (Ibid)

2.2 Translation studies as a new discipline

According to Munday (2001: 1),

> Translation studies is the new academic discipline related to the study of the theory and phenomena of translation. By its nature it is multilingual and also interdisciplinary, encompassing languages, linguistics, communication studies, philosophy and a range of types of cultural studies.

In a very important paper, James Holmes (1972) draws up a disciplinary map for Translation Studies in which he distinguishes between "pure" research-oriented areas of translation theory and description, on the one hand, and "applied" areas like translator training, on the other. (Holmes 1972: 176 in Venuti 2000).

In this paper, Holmes starts by giving account of the translation situation; a situation marked by "great confusion" due to the lack of a general agreement as to:

A. the types of models to be tested
B. the types of methods to be used
C. the terminology to be employed
D. the boundaries of the field
E. the name to be given to this new discipline
F. the scope and structure of the discipline

In this context, Holmes also raises the problem of the lack of "appropriate channels of communication" due to the fact that the writings about the field are scattered in the various journals of adjacent disciplines. Concerning the attribution of a name to this new discipline, Holmes states:

> It would not be wise to continue referring to the discipline by its subject matter…and failure to distinguish the two can only further confusion. The designation of "translation studies" would seem to be the most appropriate of all those available in English, and its adoption as the standard term for the discipline as a whole would remove a fair amount of confusion and misunderstanding. (Holmes 1972: 174-5)

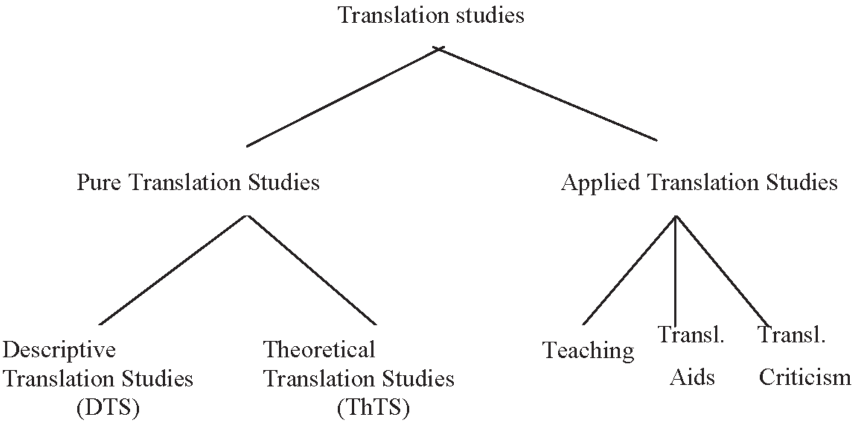
Holmes devotes the bulk of his paper to what constitutes this new discipline (i.e. its scope and structure). He thus asserts that translation is an empirical discipline which, as any other empirical discipline, has two goals:

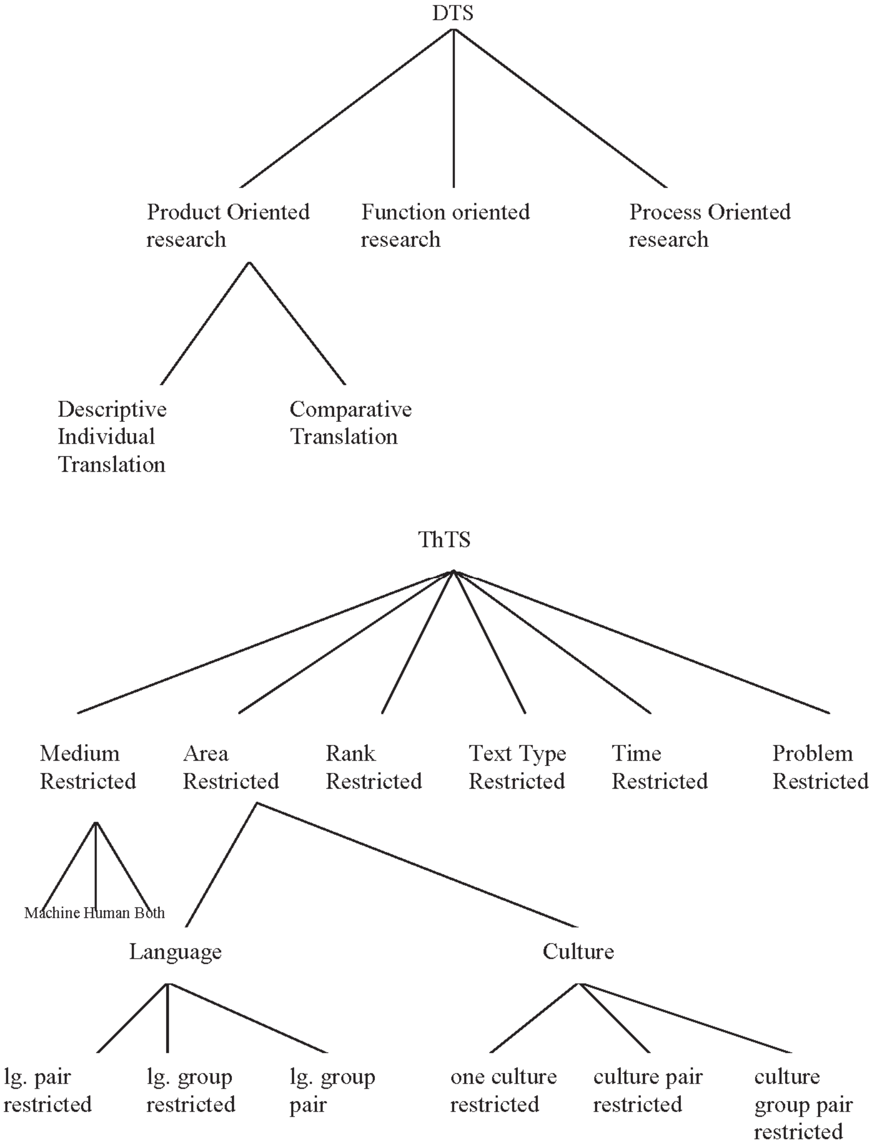
A. the description of particular world phenomena
B. establishing general principles which can explain and then predict the occurrence of these phenomena

These two goals, according to Holmes, can be dealt with through two sub-branches under "Pure Translation Studies"; namely, Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) and Theoretical Translation Studies (ThTS).

Following is a simplified representation of Holmes' "meta-reflection" on the structure and content of "Pure Translation Studies" and "Applied Translation Studies":

Figure 1: A representation of Holmes's "meta-reflection" on the structure and content of Pure and Applied Translation Studies (adapted from Munday J. 2001) (continued below)


Translation studies
Pure Translation Studies
Applied Translation Studies
Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS)
Theoretical Translation Studies (ThTS)
Teaching
Transl. Aids
Transl. Criticism


DTS
Product Oriented research
Function oriented research
Process Oriented research
Descriptive Individual Translation
Comparative Translation
ThTS
Medium Restricted
Area Restricted
Rank Restricted
Text Type Restricted
Time Restricted
Problem Restricted
Machine Human Both
Language
Culture
lg. pair restricted
lg. group restricted
lg. group pair
one culture restricted
culture pair restricted
culture group pair restricted

(Holmes, 1972)

2.3 Translation Theory

A “theory” is defined by *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* as “a set of properly argued ideas intended to explain facts or events.”

For many translation scholars, translation theory is a necessary component of a translation teaching course. According to Mona Baker (1992: 1-2), the value of a theoretical component in an academic course is that it

> encourages students to reflect on what they do, how they do it, and why they do it in one way rather than another. In addition, it enables the translator to handle the unpredictable, gives him or her a certain degree of confidence and provides them with the basis on which further developments in the field may be achieved.

Farghal (2000: 86) makes a very important distinction between two kinds of theories: a theory of translating and a theory of translation. The first is said to be subconscious “consisting of a set of practical principles and guidelines which are intuitively implemented in translation practice by competent translators”. It is also said to be “naturally acquired through extensive translation activity” leading to “a high degree of automatization in finished translators”. The second, on the other hand, is said to be conscious, i.e. “consisting of a set of theoretical or abstract principles and guidelines which are consciously applied by translators”. It is also said to be formally learned “through exposure to or instruction in translation studies where the theoretical validity of some translation theorems are tested against concocted or naturally-occurring translation data”. Farghal further notes that before introducing translation theory into the class, students must first develop a certain translating technique, (i.e. a certain practical experience):

> The role of translation theory is intended to refine and sharpen the already existing level of translating theory by bringing to consciousness a set of translation strategies and principles in prospective translators… The prospective translator will be expected to work with many theoretical options whose practical application manifests itself in a translational decision which is … both practically and theoretically motivated.

2.3.1 The interdisciplinary character of translation

Despite the privileged status which translation theory is said to enjoy amongst translation scholars, it is unfortunately a fact that the concept of ‘theory’ as far as translation is concerned remains somewhat vague and unclear in the minds of many. The main reason for this most probably lies in the complex nature of translation itself and, more specifically, in its interdisciplinary character. According to Chesterman (1989: 5),

> The field [of translation theory] is a motley one, full of unstated assumptions and terminological confusion; this even extends to the term "translation theory'' itself… To some extent this is understandable: translation is an extremely complex activity. And translation studies must cover a very wide area touching on semiotics, linguistics, text and discourse analysis, literary criticism, contrastive analysis, communication theory, action theory and a good deal more.

An adequate translation theory, according to Chesterman, should be descriptive ("stating precisely what it is that translators do" when they translate), prescriptive ("stating what a translator should do, what a translation should be like, in given circumstances; i.e. defining an optimum product or an optimum process leading to such a product") and, finally, it should be capable of "establishing principles, strategies or rules that will enable predictions to be made with the highest probability possible" (Ibid) .

From a slightly different perspective, Venuti (2000: 4) stresses the interdisciplinarity issue in the following terms:

> The increasingly interdisciplinary nature of translation studies has multiplied theories of translation. A shared interest in a topic, however, is no guarantee that it is acceptable as a theory in one field or will satisfy the conceptual requirements of a theory in others. In the West, from antiquity to the late nineteenth century, theoretical statements about translation fell into traditionally defined areas of thinking about language and culture; literary theory and criticism, rhetoric, grammar, philosophy. Twentieth-century translation theory reveals a much expanded range of fields and approaches reflecting the differentiation of modern culture; not only varieties of linguistics, literary criticism, philosophical speculation, and cultural theory, but experimental studies and anthropological field work, as well as translator training and translation practice.

In order to grasp a particular translation theory, Venuti suggests, one has to relate it to the specific discipline where it originated:

> Any account of theoretical concepts and trends must acknowledge the disciplinary sites in which they emerged in order to understand and evaluate them (Ibid).

This is almost a re-statement of James Holmes' position which maintains that

> Theoretical Translation Studies is interested in using the results of Descriptive Translation Studies in combination with the information available from related fields and disciplines to evolve principles, theories and models which will serve to explain what translating and translations are and will be. (Holmes 1972: 177-17)

2.3.2 A general translation theory vs. partial translation theories

Another source of confusion and lack of clarity regarding the designation "Translation Theory" is the absence of specificity of reference. Does Translation Theory refer to

> a full, inclusive theory accommodating so many elements which can serve to explain and predict all phenomena falling within the terrain of translating and translation? (Holmes 1972: 178)

or does it refer to a partial theory having to do with only one or a few aspects of a general translation theory?

According to Holmes, there is still a long way to go before translation theorists can develop a translation theory that is all inclusive and general. Thus, the translation theories that have been put forward to date are simply partial theories. However, Holmes argues that

> it is in this area of partial theories that the most significant advances have been made in recent years. In fact a great deal of further research will probably have to be conducted before we can even begin to think about arriving at a true general theory of translation. (Holmes 1972: 178)

In a similar vein, Chau states, quoting Wilss (1982: 51-53), that

> it can be misleading to talk about 'translation theories' as such, as if there are properly developed theoretical models… This does not imply, though, that there is a lack of serious, albeit unsystematic, contemplation and explanation of the problems of translation. These insights can be grouped under the heading of 'translation studies'. (Chau 1984: 94)

Holmes classifies partial translation theories into six main groups. These are:

1. medium-restricted translation theories; that is, is the translation conducted by humans, machines or both?

2. area-restricted translation theories; that is, these theories are restricted either with regard to the languages used in the translation or with regard to the particular cultures involved.
3. rank-restricted theories; that is, is the translation theory concerned with the rank of the word as in technological and scientific translation where the terminology is very important, or is it concerned with the rank of the sentence? Alternatively, is the translation theory interested in translation at the textual level, i.e. beyond the sentence level?
4. text-type restricted translation theories: the main concern here is with translating particular types of texts such as informative texts, aesthetic texts, operative texts (Reiss 1977: 109).
5. time-restricted translation theories: these are divided into two types, namely, translation theory of contemporary texts and translation theory of ancient texts.
6. problem-restricted translation theories: here the focus is on tackling specific translation problems such as the translation of metaphors, collocations, idiomatic expressions… (Holmes 1972: 178-180)

2.4 An overview of the main trends in translation studies

In this section, an overview of the main approaches and contributions to translation studies, especially in the last fifty years or so, will be carried out. To focus the discussion, three brief surveys by three different translation scholars, Chau (1984), Venuti (2000), and Munday (2001), will be examined and compared.

2.4.1 Models of translation: Chau (1984)

The main concern in Chau (1984) is to "examine the theoretical basis of various methods of training translators and to propose an overall view of translation pedagogy" (Chau 1984: 3). His research first discusses the relationship between Language Studies, Translation Studies and Translation Teaching and then traces the evolution of this relationship by shedding light on four major stages of development since the late 19th century. This is an interesting way of surveying the main trends and contributions in Translation Studies because, to use Holmes's classification of Translation Studies, it considers the main branches of these studies (i.e. Pure Translation Studies and Applied Translation Studies) in their interaction with language studies (1).

The four major stages of evolution, in terms of which the relationship between Language Studies, Translation Studies and Translation Teaching is examined by Chau, are as follows:

A. the pre-linguistic stage
B. the formal stage
C. the ethno-semantic stage
D. the text-linguistic stage

A. The pre-linguistic stage:

Language studies at the pre-linguistic stage, according to Chau, are characterized by a concentration on the written word, a lack of distinction between *langue* and *parole*, a heavy emphasis on the diachronic study of language and finally a prescriptive rather than a descriptive attitude. In other words, translation studies are seen to be characterized by a focus on "highly accredited" source texts, a prescriptive approach and a continuous debate over free vs. literal translation. As for translation teaching, this is marked by emphasis on grammatical transfer and on *langue,* language as an abstract system, rather than *parole,* language in use. It also adopts a prescriptive approach, telling the translator how to translate (Chau 1984: 100).

B. The formal linguistic stage:

Chau uses the term "formal" to refer to those schools and theories which exclude the element of meaning from their language study. According to Chau, language studies at this stage exhibit certain features such as:

- the emergence of a new conception of language in which language is regarded as a structure with different levels and interconnected elements, and with meanings depending on the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations they have within the entire system…
- the strict adherence to the meanings emanating from within the system; that is, no attempt is made to link meanings to actual language use
- the adoption of a descriptive rather than a prescriptive attitude

Concerning translation studies at this stage (2), they are characterized by the following:

- the emphasis is put on comparing the structures of the languages involved in the translation
- connecting meanings within the language system with language use in real life rarely takes place
- the approach is descriptive

As for translation teaching at this formal stage, it is dominated by controversy over whether linguistics should be used in translation classes and by the publication of influential works on the subject of translation such as those of Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), G. Mounin (1963) and Catford (1965). (Ibid: 103-108)

C. The ethno-semantic stage:

According to Chau, language studies at this stage are marked by a rising awareness of the cultural dimension of meaning in language, thanks to the studies carried out by some anthropologists such as Malinowski. Within this phase, meaning is consequently defined in terms of cultural fields and in terms of context. In addition to this, the influence of the 'relativity' view of language and culture associated with Humboldt, Whorf and Sapir is also manifested in the language studies conducted at this stage. Thus, unlike formal linguists, the ethno-semantic linguists do not turn their back on meaning but rather acknowledge the fact that meaning is inseparable from language and culture. Students of language thus paid particular attention to inter-cultural contrasts.

Translation studies at this stage, Chau points out, are characterized by the emergence of two translation methods, namely, the Ethnographical-Semantic Method and the Dynamic Equivalence Method. The first method is a direct response to a set of obstacles faced by Bible translators. It encourages translators to be sensitive to the culture-bound elements inherent in and unique to each lexical item of a language (Chau: 132). While this method focuses on comparing world views and concentrates on language, like other grammatical methods, the Dynamic Equivalence method is more pragmatic because it focuses on reader-response. In other-words, the theory now puts the emphasis on *parole*. By reader-response is meant that the TL text should produce the same effect on the TL text readers as the SL text did on the original readers. According to Chua, "the most popular version of this method is the one presented by Nida (1964): dynamic equivalence translation" (Chau: 139).

Concerning translation teaching at this stage, this is characterized by the incorporation of the SL culture or even the TL culture in the curricula of many translation institutions. These curricula also consist of ethno-semantic approaches, such as componential analysis and folk taxonomies. In this respect, Chau points out that:

> In particular terms, ethno-semantic translation teachers spend most of their time introducing to the students the civilization of the SL, pointing out the crucial contrasts between that culture and their own, and how the two peoples conceptualize and subsequently dissect the world differently (Chau: 134)… Translation training, according to this method, is basically a cultivation of the awareness of cultural gaps (colour, kinship terms…) (Chau: 136).

D.The text linguistic stage:

At this stage in the evolution of language and translation study, language studies have begun to acknowledge the importance of 'text' as the relevant unit of investigation and started to abandon their concern with minimal units and decontextualized sentences. Thus, text-based language studies have started to proliferate (3).

Not indifferent to these major developments in language studies, translation studies at this stage have been marked by a breakaway from formal translation methods since these try to represent the idealized knowledge of the language user with no consideration whatsoever for pragmatic factors. According to Chau, the main characteristics of translation studies in this phase are:

- regarding the text as the relevant unit of translating
- viewing the translating process as an interactive process between the author, the translator and the TL text reader and not simply as a sterile comparison of two "dead" texts
- taking into consideration the transfer of pragmatic features
- replacing the widely used concept of "equivalence" by that of "adequacy"
- forsaking the idea of an ideal or original translation. (Chau 1984: 105)

Translation teaching methods adopting text linguistic-oriented methods at this stage are represented by the works of Reiss (1976a), Wilss (1982), Hatim (1984 a, b), Kussmaul (1983), Neubert (1983), leading Chau to predict a bright future for textlinguistics in the translation class.

2.4.2 The Cultural Turn: Venuti (2000)

In this reader, Venuti assembles a number of articles and essays by different contributors and which represent the most important contributions to translation studies in the 20th century. Among the reasons advanced for the publication of this reader, one can mention:

- the rapid growth of the translation discipline as can be seen in the multitude of translation training centres and publications .
- the diversity of translation research, with some scholars dealing with the didactics of translation, but most focusing on translation within and across traditional disciplines such as linguistics, literary criticism, philosophy and anthropology.

The reader is divided into five chronological sections:

- 1900s-1930s
- 1940s-1950s
- 1960s-1970s
- 1980s
- 1990s

Each section provides a brief account of the main approaches and includes seminal articles by prominent translation scholars. However, Venuti warns that the multitude of translation theories makes it difficult to give a comprehensive evaluation of the translation situation today:

> In translation studies, the broad spectrum of theories and research methodologies may doom any assessment of its “current state” to partial representation, superficial synthesis, optimistic canonization. (Venuti 2000: 1)

A. 1900s-1930s

According to Venuti, translation theory in this period is influenced by German literary and philosophical traditions, hermeneutics and essential phenomenology. Language is considered “not so much communicative as constitutive in its representation of thought and reality” (Venuti 2000: 11). Consequently, translation is viewed simply as an “interpretation which necessarily reconstitutes and transforms the foreign text” (Ibid).

The autonomous status of translation is also recognized: a translated text is considered in its own right as an independent “work of signification” despite its being derived from an original text. The main authors cited by Venuti in this period and who adopt this view are Walter Benjamin (1923) and Ezra Pound. For the first,

> A translation participates in the afterlife (Überleben) of the foreign text, enacting an interpretation that is informed by a history of reception ("the age of its fame"). This interpretation does more than transmit essays; it recreates the values that accrued to the foreign text over time. (Venuti 2000: 11)

As for Ezra Pound,

> The autonomy of translation takes two forms. A translated text might be "interpretive", a critical "accompaniment", usually printed next to the foreign poem and composed of linguistic peculiarities that direct the reader across the page to foreign textual features, like a lexical choice or a prosodic effect. Or a translation might be "original writing", in which literary "standards" in the translating culture guide the rewriting of the foreign poem so decisively as to seem a "new poem" in that language. The relation between the two texts doesn't disappear; it is just masked by an illusion of originality, although in target language terms. (Ibid)

B. 1940s-1950s

According to Venuti, the dominating concept in this period is TRANSLATABILITY which he examines through the works of E. Nida (1945) and Roman Jakobson (1959). He also refers to the work of Vinay and Darbelnet which he considers of "enormous practical and pedagogical value" (See Venuti's introduction to Translation in 1940s-1950s (2000: 67-70)).

With regard to Nida, Venuti states that during his translation of the Bible, Nida faced the problem of translating between "different realities" and hence the proposal that to solve such problems, the translator has to have the necessary cultural information. In other words, the translator has to seek ethnological solutions (Nida 1945: 197). Translation, here, as a consequence, becomes a kind of paraphrase:

> It works to reduce linguistic and cultural differences to a shared referent. Yet, the referent is clearly a core of meaning constructed by the translator and weighted towards the receiving culture so as to be comprehensible there. (Venuti 2000: 69)

Regarding R. Jakobson's views on translation, Venuti argues that the main contribution in this period lies in his introducing "a semiotic reflection on the subject of translatability". Thus, for Jakobson, "All cognitive experience and its classification are conveyable in any existing language" (Jakobson 1959: 56). This can be done by using loan-words, loan-translations, neologisms or semantic shifts and circumlocution (Ibid). By adopting such a stance, Jakobson is rejecting the claims of untranslatability voiced by some linguists such as Whorf, who maintains that

> facts are unlike to speakers whose language background provides for unlike formulations of them. (Whorf 1956: 235)

Jakobson also rejects Bertrand Russell's statement that "no one can understand the word *cheese* unless he has a non-linguistic acquaintance with cheese". Instead, Jakobson argues, "no one can understand the word *cheese* unless he has an acquaintance with the meaning assigned to this word in the lexical code: food made of pressed curds" (Jakobson 1959: 54). In other words, the meaning of the word *cheese* is to be understood in its relation with other words in the verbal code. The meaning of this word according to Jakobson, then, is:

> definitely a linguistic- or to be more precise and less narrow -a semiotic fact. (Ibid: 54)

Only poetry, according to Jakobson, is untranslatable because the components that make up poetry, namely, syntactic and morphological categories, roots, and affixes, phonemes… "carry their own autonomous significance according to the principles of similarity and contrast when these components are confronted or juxtaposed" (Ibid: 59).

To round off this discussion on Jakobson's reflections on translatability, it is important to draw attention to his crucial distinction between different types of translation:

1. intralingual translation or rewording
2. interlingual translation or translation proper
3. intersemiotic translation. (Ibid : 55)

Concerning Vinay & Darbelnet, Venuti maintains that the work of these two Canadian linguists constitutes a major contribution to translation studies in this period because it "provides a theoretical basis for a variety of translation methods currently in use" (Venuti 2000: 70). In their book, Vinay & Darbelnet identify two general translation strategies: direct translation and oblique translation, which in turn are sub-divided into seven procedures:

1/ borrowing, 2/ calque, 3/ literal translation, 4/ transposition, 5/ modulation, 6/ equivalence, 7/ adaptation.

C. 1960s-1970s

This period, according to Venuti, is marked by the predominance of the concept of equivalence which he defines in the following terms:

> Translating is generally seen as a process of communicating the foreign text by establishing a relationship of identity or analogy with it. (Ibid: 121)

Many typologies of equivalence were proposed towards the end of the 1970s. In a very important paper, Koller (1979b) enumerates these typologies as follows:

- denotative equivalence
- connotative equivalence
- text-normative equivalence
- pragmatic equivalence
- formal equivalence

However, the most important theoretical evolution concerning the concept of equivalence, Venuti suggests, lies in the rise of a distinction between translating that cultivates pragmatic equivalence, immediately intelligible to the receptor, and translating that is formally equivalent, designed to approximate the linguistic and cultural features of the foreign text. (Venuti 2000: 121)

He further clarifies the distinction by stating that

> pragmatic equivalence communicates the foreign text according to values so familiar in the receiving language and culture as to conceal the very fact of translating. Formal equivalence, in contrast, adheres so closely to the linguistic and cultural values of the foreign text as to reveal the translation to be a translation. (Ibid: 122)

Instead of the term "pragmatic", Venuti points out that Nida (1964) uses the term "dynamic", which is subsequently replaced by the term "functional" in Nida and Taber (1969). He also mentions the appearance of variants to the dichotomoy "dynamic vs. formal", such as Newmark's "communicative vs. semantic" translation and Julian House's "covert vs. overt" translation.

D. 1980s:

According to Venuti, this period is marked by the birth of Vermeer's work on *Skopos*. This is a Greek word which signifies "purpose" or "aim". In translation theory, the term refers to the purpose of a translation. It was first used by Hans J. Vermeer in the 1970s and later in 1984 this concept was developed into a theory which appeared in the co-authored book of Vermeer and Reiss, *Groundwork for a General Theory of Translation.*

According to *Skopos* theory, the translation methods and strategies are determined by the purpose of the translation. The translator has to be clear about why he is translating a ST and what the function of the TT will be. Following from this approach to translation, the ST can be translated differently depending on the purpose of the TT and the commission given to the translator.

Skopos theory, however, did not escape criticism. Some of the criticisms levelled at it include: excluding literary texts from its investigation and not giving sufficient consideration to the linguistic make-up of the ST.

E. 1990s

According to Venuti, this is a decade where translation studies achieved the greatest success as a new discipline because of

> the worldwide proliferation of translator training and the flood of scholarly publishing… training manuals, encyclopedias, journals, conference proceedings, collection of research articles, monographs, primers of theory, and readers that gather a variety of theoretical statements. (Venuti 2000: 333)

However, the single most important characteristic of this period, for Venuti, is the emergence of works seeking to link translated texts and translation processes to teaching cultural and political issues such as the works of Hatim & Mason (1990) and (1997):

> Hatim and Mason perform nuanced analyses of actual translation in terms of style, genre, discourse, pragmatics and ideology. Their unit of analysis is the whole text, and their analytical method takes into account the differences between "literary" and "non-literary" translation. (Ibid: 335)

2.4.3 Linguistics, Culture and Beyond: Munday (2001)

In his book, *Introducing Translation Studies*, Munday gives a brief survey of many of the most important translation studies. He proceeds following a chronological order from pre-twentieth century theory to the systematic linguistic-oriented theories.

Munday devotes one chapter on work before the 20th century, and then deals systematically with a number of central topics, illustrated by key writers: equivalence, shifts, functional theories, discourse and register, culture and gender, translator's visibility and philosophical theories.

A. Pre-twentieth century theory:

For Munday, this period focuses on the issue of the “literal” vs. “free” translation dichotomy:

> The distinction between “word-for-word” (i.e. literal) and sense-for-sense (i.e. free) translation goes back to Cicero (first century BCE) and St. Jerome (late fourth century CE) and forms the basis of key writings on translation in centuries nearer to our own. Up until the second half of the twentieth century, translation theory seemed locked in a “sterile” debate over the “triad” of literal, free and faithful (Munday 2001: 19)

Citing Susan Bassnett (1980; revised edition 1991: 42), Munday makes the point that this recurring theme of literal vs. free emerges from time to time in history with “variable degrees of emphasis in accordance with differing concepts of language and communication”. The author further suggests that from the late 18th century to the 1960s, translation was also used as a tool of foreign language learning in many schools. It was eventually called the grammar-translation-method and concentrated on, “the rote study of the grammatical rules and structures of the foreign language.” According to Munday,

> These rules were both practised and tested by the translation of a series of usually unconnected and artificially constructed sentences, exemplifying the structures being studied. This approach persists even nowadays in certain countries and contexts. (Munday 2001: 8)

B. Linguistic-oriented theories:

The central topics of the linguistic-oriented theories enumerated by Munday are given below in chronological order:

1. 1950s-1960s: Translatability
    - Equivalence
    - Shifts
2. 1970s-1980s: Functional theories
3. 1990s: Discourse and register

1. 1950s-1960s: Translatability

As mentioned in section 2. 4. 2. B above, this period is marked by the issue of translatability. Thus, Nida embraces the view that solutions need to be ethnological, whereas Jakobson introduces a semiotic reflection on the subject. But for Munday, this period marks, above anything else, a phase during which theoreticians start “to attempt some systematic analysis of translation” (Munday: 35)

- Equivalence:

For Munday, in addition to the issue of translatability, the concept of equivalence is also “a constant theme of translation studies” in this period as evidenced by Nida’s (1964) and Nida & Taber’s (1969) works, where the triad “literal”, “free” and “faithful” are substituted by the important concepts of formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. In fact Nida’s dynamic equivalence concept, according to Munday, has introduced a receptor-based direction in translation studies which eventually influenced translation theorists such as Newmark and German translation theorists such as W. Koller, Wolfgang Wilss, Otto Kade, Albert Neubert and Katharina Reiss. It would be worthwhile here to consider briefly the works of P. Newmark and W. Koller.

Concerning Newmark’s work (1981), Munday says that although he is influenced by Nida, he does not adhere to his principle of equivalent effect since this effect is “inoperant if the text is out of TL space and time” (Newmark 1981: 69). Newmark proposes instead a new dichotomy, semantic translation vs. communicative translation, to replace formal and dynamic translation respectively. Communicative translation, according to Newmark,

> attempts to produce on its readers an effect *as close as possible* to that obtained on the readers of the original.

As for semantic translation, it

> attempts to render as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original. (Newmark 1981: 39)

In short, Newmark argues against Nida’s definition of dynamic translation, that is producing the *same effect* on the TT reader, and uses instead the phrases *as close as possible* and *as closely as*. Munday, however, does not elaborate on the other features which distinguish the communicative from the semantic translation. Thus, whereas communicative translation is directed to the second reader in such a way as to make it easy for him/her to understand, the semantic translation remains “within the original culture” and does not remove any cultural obstacles for the second reader. Moreover, while communicative translation is likely to be more readable and simpler and more general, semantic translation tends to be more complex, less readable (awkward) and much more specific (Newmark 1981 in Munday 2000: 45).

For Newmark nearly all texts necessitate a communicative and not a semantic translation. Such texts cover “most non-literary writing, journalism, information articles and books, textbooks, reports, scientific and technological writing, non-personal correspondence, propaganda, publicity, standardized writing and popular fiction" (Newmark 1977 in Chesterman 1989: 125). Texts which require a semantic translation, on the other hand, encompass literary and religious text varieties where the expression or the peculiarities of the text form are significant (Ibid).

As for W. Koller (1979 b), Munday draws attention to the important distinction between the concepts of correspondence and equivalence (4), then he tackles the five different types of equivalence proposed by Koller. According to the latter, this equivalence typology can be helpful for translators. Regarding this point, he states:

> With every text as a whole, and also with every segment of text, the translator… must set up a hierarchy of values to be preserved in translation; from this he can derive a hierarchy of equivalence requirements for the text or segment in question. This in turn must be preceded by a translationally relevant text analysis. (Koller 1979b/89: 104)

- Shifts:

This period, according to Munday, is also characterized by an effort to categorize the translation process; the suggestion of various taxonomies. One of the linguists who embarked on this task is Catford (1965) for whom shifts refer to the changes that occur at several linguistic levels and categories while translating (Catford 1965 in Chesterman 1989: 71). Catford provides a detailed account of lexical and grammatical shifts in translation (5).

2. 1970s - 1980s: Functional theories

According to Munday, this period marks the start of "a move away from the static linguistic typologies of translation shifts and the emergence and flourishing in Germany of a functionalist and communicative approach to the analysis of translation" (Munday 2001: 73). Translation is now considered as an act of intercultural communication.

Among the pioneers of this new move are Katharina Reiss (1977) in her important work on text types and language function, Holz-Mänttäri's translation action model (1984), J. Vermeer's *Skopos* theory (1989) and Christine Nord's (work on text analysis 1988). Reiss's model draws a link between language function, text type, genre and translation strategy. It is later on merged with Vermeer's Skopos theory. Nord, for her part, incorporates detailed text-analysis into her function-oriented model.

Concluding his discussion of the functional approaches in translation, Munday states that although these approaches may assist the translator, they fall short of giving a full account of the link between culture and language (Munday 2001 : 86).

3. 1990s: Discourse and register

According to Munday (Ibid: 89), discourse analysis which emerged in the 1970s, was first used in applied linguistics long before it came to be used in translation. Very important works in translation in the 1990s, such as those by Hatim and Mason (1990), (1997), Mona Baker (1992) and Juliane House (1997) were to a great extent inspired by Halliday's systemic functional grammar insights. Hatim and Mason, however, broke fresh ground when, building on these insights, they considered the pragmatic and semiotic dimensions of translation.

In a way, discourse analysis is similar to the translation text analysis line of research initiated by Christian Nord (1988) in that both are concerned with describing language beyond the sentence level. However, Munday draws an important distinction between the two:

> While text analysis normally concentrates on describing the way in which texts are organized, discourse analysis looks at the way language communicates meaning and social and power relations. (Munday 2001: 89)

For Halliday, meaning, which is the central concern of translation in general, should be considered by looking at the speaker's or writer's linguistic choices in their relation with a broad socio-cultural context, in view of the fact that there is a strong link between the two.

To conclude, discourse analysis models "serve as a useful way of tackling the linguistic structure and meaning of a text" (Ibid: 101).

CHAPTER III

TEXT-BASED APPROACHES TO TRANSLATION

In his discussion of aspects of translating and the curriculum content (1), Chau (1984: 119) states that “the contents of all translation curricula can be boiled down to three main areas / models: the Grammatical, the Cultural and the Interpretive”. The various elements of each of these areas are said to be present with varying degrees of emphasis in all translating programmes (Ibid: 120). The importance of these models lies in the fact that they constitute

> the foci of attention of the translator in his work, keys to identify problems in inadequate translations, keys to what can be taught and learnt formally in translating. (Chau 1984: 119)

Leaving aside, for the moment, the pedagogical implications of these models, it would be appropriate here to look at the salient characteristics of and the main differences between the various trends. One way of doing this would be to classify the grammatical and cultural aspects of translating under the heading of the *non-text-based* approaches to translation and the interpretive aspect of translating under the heading of *text-based* approaches to translation.

3.1 Non-text-based translation approaches

Non-text-based approaches refer to the grammatical and cultural models mentioned above where the main concern is with minimal units and decontextualized sentences.

3.1.1 The Grammatical model:

According to Chau, this model can be divided into two methods:

A. The traditional grammar method
B. The formal grammar method

The main feature of the first method relates to its prescriptive character, translating being nothing more than finding equivalent TL words and sentences based on the assumption that “language is grammar and translating is the mechanical substitution of lexicon and conversion of syntax” (Chau 1984: 122).

Underlying this conception of translating is a vision of language as a universal phenomenon and of language users as having a similar way for dissecting and segmenting reality outside (Ibid: 122). Building on this conception, the idea of a model grammar has emerged as “an exemplary set of categories to classify forms”. This model was embodied in the grammar of Greek which was “studied directly or indirectly through its Latin adaptation” (Ibid: 122). Thus, all that grammarians have had to do was to locate the meanings in their languages which corresponded to those forms and categories of Greek grammar (Ibid: 123).

The main feature of the formal grammar method lies in its descriptive character. Thus,

> while traditional grammar subjectively defines classes and assigns rules for language based on meaning, formal grammar does so objectively based on a structural analysis of the phonology, morphology and syntax of a language. (Ibid: 127)

Comparing the two methods, Chau concludes that both adopt a “static” approach as they focus on translating *langue* rather than *parole*. In other words, they both do not allow “the gaps and deviations of a text (*parole*) in relation with the norms of the system (*langue*)” (Mehrach 2003: 16).

Mehrach (2003) draws further comparisons between the two methods; they both “require that a standard reading be achieved by the translator; i.e., that there is only one reading to the text, even though it may yield a number of interpretations”. In addition to this, they both take the word and phrase as the most important units in translating.

3.1.2 The cultural model

According to this model, the meaning of a word is derived from its culture, and language itself is nothing but a cultural manifestation the meanings of which are defined in terms of cultural fields (Mehrach 2003: 17). Translating, therefore, is not a matter of replacing SL forms by TL ones but is rather a matter of cultural transfer. Two approaches are identified within this model:

A. The ethnographical semantic method
B. The dynamic equivalence method

(See section 2. 4. 1. C above for a discussion of these methods)

It should be noted that by encouraging translators to be sensitive to the meanings of the items which are culture-specific, and by resorting to componential analysis and folk taxonomies, the ethnographical semantic method is still focusing on the word and the phrase and not on the text; i.e., it deals with inter-cultural contrasts. A similar observation can be made with regard to the dynamic equivalence method which sought to solve cultural problems in translation by using the technique of cultural transposition (for example, "give us our daily fish" as a translation of "give us our daily bread" for cultures where "bread" is unknown…). However, Chau notes that due to its emphasis on the purpose of individual communication, the dynamic equivalence method shares some of the grounds with the interpretive model, especially sensitivity to context. This is the most significant difference between the ethnographical semantic method and the dynamic equivalence method. More specifically, while the former, like all grammatical methods, concentrates on *langue* (regarding cultural differences as static), the latter works with *parole* (finding the closest dynamic equivalent).

In conclusion, both the grammatical and cultural models lay the emphasis on strings of words and/or sentences in a ST and their TL equivalents to the exclusion of the notion of text. Texts are still conceived of as mere linear sequences of sentences (Mehrach 2003: 19).

3.2 Text-based translation approaches

In this section, attention will be directed to those translation approaches which focus on texts rather than words or sentences. Among these approaches, two stand out as particularly interesting, namely, the hermeneutic approach and the text linguistic approach. The two approaches are subsumed under the interpretive model. Given the importance and relevance of the second approach to the line of investigation pursued in this work, more discussion space will be devoted to it.

3.2.1 The hermeneutic (or subjective) approach

This approach is based on the assumption that a unique reading of a text is impossible. When readers are faced with a text, they bring to it their own personal background knowledge, their beliefs and their attitudes. The role of the reader is considered highly important in this method.

The foregrounding of the reader is the result of the emergence of an intellectual climate, especially in France with R. Barthes who has highlighted the importance of semiotics in literature and other domains. Thus, the view of the reader has been redefined; a reader is not

> so much someone who consumes a given text but rather a producer of that text. (Bassnett-McGuire 1980).

The implications of this view of the reader have far reaching consequences. This can be summed up in the following statement by Mehrach (2003: 19):

> Since there is more than one reading, there is also more than one rendering of any particular text. Language is not neutral.

In connection with this, Chau adds:

> This denial of objective or standard reading of the SLT cannot but have profound influence on translating and translating criticism. (Chau 1984: 145)

In short, the aim of the hermeneutic method is to create new meanings and not to reconstruct the original text meaning. For Godamer (1978: 58, cited in Chau 1984: 151),

> the hermeneutic interpreter considers it sterile merely to reconstruct the "meaning" hidden in a text, like collecting and piecing together pieces of a jigsaw puzzle already lying around… Instead, every act of interpreting should be like a genuine conversation, through which "something different has come to be".

Chau concludes that postulating unique interpretations of a text "frees the translator from anxieties concerning retrieving his author's intentions" (Ibid: 153).

3.2.2 The text linguistics approach

3.2.2.1 Introduction

As stated by Chau (1984), the text linguistic stage has ushered in a new era where the emphasis on minimal units and decontextualized sentences has been replaced by a consideration of the unit text as the proper site of investigation. According to Hatim and Mason, text linguistics is

> that branch of linguistics which concerns itself with the analysis of spoken and written text above the level of individual sentences. (Hatim and Mason 1990: 123)

Referring to the work of Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), they add that text linguistics "attempts to account for the forms of texts in terms of their users" (Ibid: 33).

At this point, it should be pointed out that there has recently been a move to using the terms textlinguistics and discourse analysis interchangeably by researchers. Thus, for example, Abdul-Fattah M. Jabr (2001) uses a slash between Discourse Analysis and Textlinguistics when talking about the implication of these for translation. Furthermore, he assigns to them a similar function, namely that of studying language beyond the sentence level:

> Since translation is a significant language skill, its methodology and practices are largely inspired and influenced by the developments that often occur in mainstream linguistics, among other disciplines. The most recent development in this regard is the evolution of discourse analysis / textlinguistics which has shifted the focus from the isolated sentence to "text", as the largest entity of language description and study. (2001: 304-305)

Similarly, Mehrach notes that

> in recent years, there has been considerable overlap between textlinguistics and discourse analysis, which is why some linguists see very little difference between the two disciplines. (Mehrach 2003: 35)

He also states that

> all text linguists, however, share the view that discourse is a natural domain of linguistics, while texts are the minimal object of enquiry. (Ibid: 35)

Yet, there are also linguists who consider a text "as a physical product, and discourse as a dynamic process of expression and interpretation whose function can be investigated using psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic methods" (Dressler 1978 in Mehrach, Ibid).

In this book, I will consistently make use of the term textlinguistics while taking into account its overlap with the term discourse analysis.

3.2.2.2 The notion of text in textlinguistics

Before briefly reviewing the main studies which have contributed to the development of a linguistics of text, it would be worthwhile to look at the various definitions of text which have been proposed in textlinguistics. Generally speaking, these definitions are complementary. Thus, for Reiss, a text is

> a coherent, thematically oriented, linguistic set of utterances, (realized in the medium of written language), for the purpose of communication. (Reiss 1981: 128).

In another definition Reiss states that

> within the text-linguistic model, texts are viewed as verbal components of human behaviour in an interactive situation. (Reiss 1987: 47)

As for Halliday (1989: 10), a text is

> language that is functional. By functional, we simply mean language that is doing some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences that I might put on the blackboard.

He also adds that a text is

> essentially a semantic unit. It is not something that can be defined as being just another kind of sentence, only bigger.

Brown and Yule (1983: 6), for their part, give a very succinct definition of text: “It is the verbal record of a communicative event”.

In Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 3), a text is defined as

> a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality. If any of these standards is not considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative.

These seven standards of textuality are cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality.

In Hatim and Mason (1997: 3), a text is

> the set of mutually relevant intentions that serve an overall rhetorical purpose (e.g. to counter-argue). It is the ultimate linguistic unit in any activity to do with communicating in language.

Finally, Baker (1992: 111) defines a text in its relationship with lexical items and grammatical structures in the following terms:

> lexical items and grammatical structures have a meaning potential which is only realized in communicative events, that is in *text*. Text here is an instance of language in use rather than language as an abstract system.

Baker also distinguishes a text from a non-text by stating that

> a text has features of organization which distinguish it from non-text, that is a random collection of sentences and paragraphs. These features are language and culture-specific just like collocational and grammatical patterning and a number of other linguistic phenomena. Each linguistic community has preferred ways of organizing its various types of discourse. (Ibid: 112)

According to Baker, language users identify a string of sentences as being a text because they particularly notice that there are connections within these sentences. Such connections, for Baker, can be classified as:

A. connections resulting from the arrangement of information within each clause and between clauses, and which contribute to "topic development through thematic structure and information structure".
B. "surface connections" which link different parts of the text to each other (cohesion).
C. "underlying semantic connections", which enable hearers and readers to understand a text, that is to make inferences (coherence and implicature). (Baker 1992: 113)

In addition to these connections, language users according to Baker recognize a text as being such because they perceive that the "textual material is packaged by the writer along patterns familiar to the reader" (Ibid: 114). In other words, readers or listeners perceive a particular genre and a particular text type within a text.

In conclusion, all of the above definitions and descriptions of the unit text share one important feature: they all refer to text as a communicative event, an instance of language in use which is fulfilling some function.

3.2.2.3 The development of a linguistics of text: a review of the main studies

The main studies leading to the emergence of a linguistics of texts have been conducted by a number of scholars such as Van Dijk (1977), Halliday and Hasan (1989), Beaugrande (1980) (1984), Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Hatim (1984a, 1984b), Hatim and Mason (1990) (1997).

In this section, however, special attention will be given to the works of M. K. Halliday, R. Hasan and Beaugrande and Dressler.

3.2.2.3.1 Language, context and text

The main concern of Halliday and Hasan's (1989) work, *Language Context and Text: Aspects of Language in Social-Semiotic Perspective* is with the description of the major features of context which are relevant to the study and interpretation of texts. For Halliday, any piece of text will show traces of its context, since both text and context are "so intimately related that neither concept can be enunciated without the other" (R. Hasan 1989: 52).

According to Halliday (1989: 5), "the notion of context goes beyond what is said and written; it includes other non-verbal goings-on, the total environment in which a text unfolds". He further states that contexts are prior to text and that a theory of context has always preceded a theory of text (Ibid).

This theory of context, according to Halliday, was pioneered by Malinowski (1923, 1925) who, in the midst of his anthropological work with the inhabitants of the Trobriand Islands in the South Pacific, had to describe the "total environment" of their texts in order to enable English-speaking readers to understand these texts properly. The way he went about this consisted in giving a commentary which situated the text in its environment. To refer to this environment, Malinowski used the phrase Context of Situation which subsumes not only the "verbal environment", i.e. "the words and sentences before and after the particular sentence that one was looking at" but also "the situation in which the text was uttered" (Halliday 1989: 6). In addition to this, he also invented the phrase Context of Culture in order to situate the context of situation within a much broader context.

According to Halliday (Ibid: 8), Firth, a British linguist, adopted the notion of Context of Situation in his own linguistic theory but had to refine it so as to be more abstract, i.e. more general. Firth's description of the context of situation covers the following elements:

- the participants in the situation
- the action of the participants: what they are doing, including both their verbal and non-verbal action
- other relevant features of the situation: the surrounding objects
- the effects of the verbal action

Another proposal for the description of the Context of Situation is that put forward by Dell Hymes who identifies the following elements in a given context of situation:

- the form and content of the message
- the setting
- the participants
- the intent and effect of situation
- the key
- the medium
- the genre
- the norms of interaction (Ibid: 9)

Without dismissing any of these suggested models for the description of the context of situation of a text, Halliday suggests that it is possible to determine the most appropriate model for the description of the context of situation which could be used for the study and interpretation of texts (Halliday 1989: 9). Such a model would enable one to account for the ease with which one communicates despite all kinds of obstacles (or noise) in the communicative environment. For Halliday, this ease in communication is due to the predictions that we make from the context:

> The situation in which linguistic interaction takes place gives the participants a great deal of information about the meanings that are being exchanged and the meanings that are likely to be exchanged. (Ibid: 10)

In short, the best model for the description of context should explain the mechanism of how these predictions come about and are responded to. According to Halliday, when language users come to a situation, they construct in their minds a model of that context of situation; firstly, they note what is going on and assign a field to this context; secondly, they note the personal relationships at play and assign a certain tenor to it; and finally, they note the role that is being played by the language and assign a mode to it.

Halliday's main contribution to the linguistics of text is thus to have introduced the features field, tenor and mode which relate a text to its context. According to Halliday, these features have the following characteristics:

1. Field: it refers to what is taking place; i.e., what the participants are doing and how this is reflected in their language.

2. Tenor: it refers to the participants themselves; i.e., their social statuses and their roles.
3. Mode: it refers to the medium of language used, spoken or written, and the role that language is playing such as arguing, describing…

These contextual domains impose their own constraints upon language users. With this regard, Hatim and Mason (1997: 25) maintain that

> producers and receivers of texts operate within constraints imposed by the particular use to which they put their language: field, mode, tenor.

3.2.2.3.2 Register

Register is a key concept in the analysis of text in context. According to Halliday (1989: 38):

> A register is a semantic concept. It can be defined as a configuration of meanings that are typically associated with a particular situational configuration of field, mode and tenor. But since it is a configuration of meanings, a register must include the expressions, the lexico-grammatical and phonological features that typically accompany or release these meanings.

Baker (1992), following Cruse (1986), makes the distinction between various types of lexical meaning: propositional, presupposed and evoked. Concerning evoked meaning, Baker states that it results from variation in dialect and register. Whereas a dialect, according to Baker, is "a variety of language which has currency within a specific community", and which can be classified into geographical, temporal and social dimensions, "register is a variety of language that a language user considers appropriate to a specific situation" (Baker 1992: 15). Thus, unlike Halliday's definition of register, Baker's definition is much less technical; this is probably due to the nature of Baker's book itself, being an introductory course for translation trainees.

In an attempt to situate the emergence of register analysis within the linguistic environment prevailing in the middle of the twentieth century, Hatim and Mason (1997: 13) state that register analysis could be considered as a reaction to the behaviourist and mentalist approaches to language at the time:

> register analysis was initially a reaction against conceptions of language in which linguistic behaviour was seen as a mechanical response to external stimuli or a cognitive issue to do with the psycholinguistic ability to generate well-formed sentences…

They also add that

> for its existence, register analysis has had to rely as much on classical disciplines such as rhetoric and the study of style as on much more recent trends within linguistics, sociolinguistics and linguistic stylistics.

Building on Halliday's three contextual features of field, tenor and mode, Ruqaiya Hasan introduces the concept of Contextual Configuration (CC). For R. Hasan,

> Each of the three [contextual features] may be thought of as a variable that is represented by some specific value(s). Each functions as a point of entry to any situation.

Accordingly, a CC is defined by Hasan as

> a specific set of values that realizes field, tenor and mode (Halliday & Hasan 1989: 56).

3.2.2.3.3 Register variation

Baker's idea of language appropriateness to a particular situation has served as a prelude for the introduction of another key notion in the analysis of text in context, namely register variation. According to Baker (1992: 15), register variation is the outcome of variations in the field, tenor and mode of discourse. Concerning field of discourse, "different linguistic choices are made by different speakers depending on what kind of action they see themselves as participating in" (Ibid: 16). As for tenor of discourse, "the language people use varies depending on such interpersonal relationships, as mother and child, doctor and patient, superior and inferior in status" (Ibid: 16). Finally, with respect to mode of discourse, linguistic choices are dictated by factors such as "the role that the language is playing (speech, essay, lecture…) and its medium of transmission (spoken, written)" (Ibid: 16).

More broadly speaking, following Halliday (1989: 39), register variation can be looked at as a continuum; at one end of the scale one finds the most closed registers and at the other end one finds the most open-ended kinds of register and in between there are more or less open registers.

As an example of the first category, Halliday cites the International Language of the Air which is marked by a fixed language and a limited number of messages. In fact, there are only a few examples which fall within this category. Concerning the second category, i.e. the most open-ended registers, Halliday cites the examples of informal narratives and spontaneous conversation. As for the third category, the more or less open registers, Halliday mentions recipes, technical instructions, legal documents and transactional registers such as buying and selling.

3.2.2.3.4 Register in relation to culture

As it has been mentioned, the contextual features, field, tenor and mode serve to interpret and study the meaning of texts. However, according to Halliday, this is not enough; a further aspect of context is required, namely, the context of culture:

> Any actual context of situation, the particular configuration of field, tenor and mode that has brought a text into being, is not just a random jumble of features but a totality - a package, so to speak, of things that typically go together in the culture. People do these things on these occasions and attach these meanings and values to them; this is what culture is. (Halliday 1989: 46)

This important insight into the role played by the context of culture in interpreting and studying texts is further corroborated and elaborated on by R. Hasan:

> The specific contextual configurations themselves derive their significance ultimately from their relation to the culture to which they belong. (Halliday & Hasan 1989: 99)

She further adds that

> Culture is itself more specifically describable as an integrated body of the total set of meanings available to a community; its semiotic potential. (Ibid: 99)

This semiotic potential, according to R. Hasan, “includes ways of doing, ways of being and ways of saying”. To sum up, R. Hasan, concludes that “the semiotic potential IS culture” (Ibid: 99-100).

The above insights immediately conjure up various sorts of cases of translation obstacles with which translators very often have to grapple. For example, the different forms of address in languages such as French, Arabic and English, the predominance of fatalistic expressions in Arabic, the pragmatic principle of politeness on which the degree of emphasis varies from one language to another, the special meanings which different languages attach to certain words such as “honour”, “land”, “blood relations”, etc.

3.2.2.3.5 Text structure and texture

Much credit goes to Halliday for introducing the three contextual features field, tenor and mode in the interpretation and study of texts. However, no less credit must also go to R. Hasan who has introduced not only the concept of contextual configuration (CC), but also the way CC is employed in characterizing text structure. According to R. Hasan (Ibid: 56),

> we need the notion of CC for talking about the structure of the text because it is the specific features of a CC - the values of the variables - that permit statements about the text's structure.

Before proceeding any further, a word about the concepts text structure and texture is in order. For R. Hasan, text structure and texture constitute the most important elements in the identification of a text. They distinguish a text from a non-text. A text possesses a "unity of structure and texture" (Ibid: 52), whereas a non-text does not.

As far as the meaning of text structure is concerned, R. Hasan equates this with the "overall structure, the global structure of the message form" (Ibid: 53). Thus, overall structure usually subsumes a number of essential elements as, for example, it is the case in Greek tragedy. Citing Aristotle, R. Hasan states that Greek tragedy is composed of three major structural elements: a beginning, a middle and an end. However, she makes the point that the degree of transparency of text structure varies:

> Between classical tragedy and the everyday common phenomenon of casual conversation, there exists a wide range of genres, varying in the extent to which the global structure of their message form appears to have a definite shape. (Ibid: 54)

Concerning the relationship between CC and text structure, and the way the first affects the second, R. Hasan maintains that the features of the CC can be used for making certain kinds of predictions about text structure (Ibid: 56). These predictions hinge upon those elements which are obligatory, those which are optional, their obligatory place of occurrence, their optional place of occurrence, and the frequency of these elements. In other words, CC is said to be able to make predictions about those elements of text structure that are obligatory and those that are optional. In fact, according to R. Hasan, it is the obligatory elements which indicate the genre; i.e., "the obligatory elements define the genre to which a text belongs" (Ibid: 61). Thus, texts are associated with particular genres by virtue of their obligatory elements. R. Hasan goes further to claim that

> it is possible to state the structure potential (or GSP, generic structure potential) of a given genre, which will permit a large number of possible structures that can be actualized. (Ibid: 64)

To conclude, text structure is said to be closely connected with the context of situation; the values accruing from field, mode and tenor, i.e. the contextual configuration (CC), allow one to make some predictions about the text structure and vice-versa; i.e., the text structure at hand "defines and confirms the nature of the contextual configuration" (Ibid: 70).

As regards texture, the other main element of text alongside structure, R. Hasan states that it is "manifested by certain kinds of semantic relations between its individual messages" which are realized by lexico-grammatical patterns (Ibid: 71). It is also seen to be indirectly affected by context through the medium of structure. In relation to this point, R. Hasan says:

> when we raise the question of the specific relationship between elements of structure and facts of texture, one interesting finding in recent years has been that the cohesive chains display a close relationship to the structural movement of the text. So far this finding is restricted to two major genre types: fictive narrative (Hasan 1984b) and exposition (Martin 1984). Further research is needed for confirmation of this relation. (Halliday and Hasan 1989: 111)

3.2.2.3.6 Thematic structure and information structure

Among the main studies which have contributed to the rise of a linguistics of text is the analysis of thematic and information structures.

These two structures, which will be examined later, are said to play a key role in information flow, which is another major characteristic of text. Concerning this point, Baker (1992: 121) says:

> One needs to think of the clause as a message rather than as a string of grammatical and lexical elements. Over and above its propositional organization in terms of elements such as subject/object and agent/patient, a clause also has an interactional organization which reflects the addresser/addressee relationship. It is this interactional organization which motivates us to make choices that ensure that a clear progression of links is achieved and that a coherent point of view is maintained throughout a text.

Thus, the information flow considered here has to do with the clause as a message having a certain "interactional organization which reflects the addresser/addressee relationship". More specifically, the speaker/writer will choose a particular linear arrangement in order "to achieve a clear progression of links and to maintain a coherent point of view", thereby ensuring a clear flow of information in a given context.

The clause as a message thus yields two types of structures: a thematic structure and an informative structure. Both these aspects of the clause as a message have been approached differently by Halliday on the one hand and the Prague School linguists on the other.

3.2.2.3.6.1 Thematic structure in Halliday's approach:

Since the clause as a message has a certain interactional organization, two concepts have been put forward in order to unravel the threads of this interaction: these are theme and rheme. Theme refers to the subject matter of the clause and does two things:

A. connecting back to previous stretches of discourse and thereby maintaining a coherent point of view
B. connecting forward and contributing to the development of later stretches. (Baker 1992: 121).

As for the rheme, which usually occurs after theme, this refers to what the speaker/writer says about the subject matter; as such, it is considered highly important. According to Baker (Ibid: 123),

> there tends to be a very high correlation between theme/rheme and subject/predicate in the Hallidayan model.

This correlation, however, does not extend to the case of marked themes (Ibid).

Hatim and Mason (1990: 212) maintain that the concepts theme/rheme are very important for texture:

> one basic aspect of texture which works in harness with cohesion is theme-rheme arrangement.

It should, however, be pointed out that the theme/rheme concepts are not strictly the prerogative of the sentence. In fact, Baker states that

> the theme/rheme distinction is text-based. Its real value does not lie in explaining the structure of individual sentences but rather in shedding light on a number of important areas which control information flow. (Baker 1992: 124)

In the same vein, Hatim and Mason state that "thematicity or givenness is a discoursal phenomenon rather than merely a property of the sentence" (1990: 212).

To show that the theme-rheme distinction is a discoursal (i.e. textual) phenomenon and not merely a sentence-based matter, one has only to look at the notions of acceptability and text organization and development. Thus, with regard to the notion of acceptability, theme and rheme can be used to explain why a given stretch of text seems acceptable while other parts are not. Sequences of sentences which are grammatical are not sufficient in themselves to guarantee acceptability. Although a text may be well-formed grammatically, it can be ill-formed as far as its thematic structure is concerned, giving us an unacceptable text. The following example by Halliday expresses this situation very clearly:

> Now comes the President here. It's the window he's stepping through to wave to the crowd. On his victory, his opponent congratulates him. "Gentlemen and ladies. That you are confident in me honours me…" (1978: 134)

This text is inacceptable because there are no links between the themes of the different clauses or between their rhemes. As a result, there is a lack of a coherent point of view which results in a text that is dislocated and disjointed.

As far as text organization and development are concerned, the theme-rheme distinction can be resorted to in order to highlight particular methods of organizing and developing a text. It has been noted, for example, that certain types of texts consistently thematize certain sentence elements which as a sequence take on an organizational role and provide a method of text development. Travel brochures, for instance, where place adjuncts are thematized are often given to illustrate the point. The impact of adopting such a method of text organization and development on text interpretation is not insignificant. According to Fries (1983), cited in Baker (1992: 129):

> If the themes of the sentences of a paragraph refer to one semantic field (say location, parts of some object…) then that semantic field will be perceived as the method of development of the paragraph. If no common semantic element runs through the themes of the sentences of a paragraph, then no simple method of development will be perceived.

3.2.2.3.6.2 Information structure in Halliday's approach

In the information structure of a clause as a message, the distinction is made between two elements: given and new. Given refers to information that is already known to the hearer/reader, whereas new refers to information that has not been known to the hearer/reader. According to Baker (1992: 141) while thematic structure is speaker-oriented, information structure is hearer-oriented:

> The distinction between theme and rheme is speaker-oriented. It is based on what the speaker wants to announce as his/her starting point and what he/she goes on to say about it. A further distinction can be drawn between what is given and what is new in a message. This is a hearer-oriented distinction. It is based on what part of the message is known to the hearer and what part is new.

The given/new elements of information structure corroborate the interactional organization view of the clause as a message in which the addresser/addressee relationship is most significant. Here the speaker/writer takes into consideration the state of knowledge of the hearer/reader and organizes his message in a way that takes account of information already present in the mind of the latter (2). The motivation behind all this is, as it has been mentioned before, to ensure a clear flow of information throughout the text.

Although Halliday and Hasan restricted their use of the given/new elements to spoken discourse, taking the tone group as the domain of information structure instead of the clause, Baker (1992: 147) maintains that written language can also be analyzed in terms of given and new since both spoken and written language share “many of the devices used to signal information status”. Of these devices, one finds references to the context (has an information item been mentioned before), the use of definiteness, the use of subordination (in the case of given information), the use of certain syntactic structures (such as cleft and pseudo-cleft structures) and the use of punctuation (such as in distinguishing between defining and non-defining relative clauses, where the defining relative clause adds no new meaning.

3.2.2.3.6.3 Thematic and information structures in the Prague School approach

The Prague School approach with regard to thematic and information structures is different from that of Halliday. One of its main points of strength is that it can be used to account for the interactional organization of languages, such as Arabic, which have a free word order. This approach, which looks at the relationship between syntax and communicative function, is referred to as Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP).

According to Baker (1992: 161), "the main premise in FSP is that the communicative goals of an interaction cause the structure of a clause or sentence to function in different kinds of perspective". To illustrate this point, she gives the example mentioned by Jan Firbas (1986) and in which the sentence *John has been taken ill* will, in context, function in a certain kind of perspective according to the purpose of communication. Thus, it may act as:

1. a statement of someone's state of health
2. as an identification of the person who is ill
3. as an affirmation of the validity of the information put forward.

For perspective 1, the focus is on the word *ill*; for perspective 2, the focus is on *John* and finally for perspective 3, the focus is on the word *has*. This analysis is reminiscent of Halliday's information structure analysis.

The notion of FSP, that the goal of communication influences the structure of a clause or sentence in such a way that it functions in different kinds of perspectives, was the prelude to another important notion, namely, Communicative Dynamism (CD). This notion was introduced by Firbas (1972). It does not take the place of the concepts of theme/rheme, given/new but rather supplements them. For Baker (1992: 161),

> the concepts of theme/rheme and given/new are supplemented in Firbas' model with a non-binary notion that determines which elements are thematic and which are not thematic in a clause. This is the notion of communicative dynamism.

Firbas (1972: 78) cited in Baker (Ibid) defines CD in the following terms:

> Communicative Dynamism… is based on the fact that linguistic communication is not a static, but a dynamic phenomenon. By CD I understand a property of communication, displayed in the course of the development of the information to be conveyed and consisting in advancing this development. By the degree of CD carried by a linguistic element, I understand the extent to which the element contributes to the development of the communication, to which, as it were, it pushes the communication forward.

For Firbas, theme is made up of context-dependent elements, whereas rheme is made up of context independent elements. Therefore, the former has a lower degree of CD while the latter has a higher one.

In conclusion, the FSP approach is different from the Hallidayan approach because it does not regard theme/rheme as "being realized chiefly by their relative positions in the clause" (Baker1992: 164); other factors are at play here, namely, context and semantic structure.

Furthermore, whereas the Hallidayan approach considers thematic and information structures as being separate, but sometimes overlapping, the FSP approach collapses the two structures.

3.2.2.3.7 Beaugrande & Dressler's textlinguistic model

Beaugrande does not believe in the power of cohesion alone in a text. He proposes six standards of textuality to be the legitimate basis of the actualization and utilization of texts, namely, cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality. These standards are interrelated and their interaction is what makes communication possible in a text. According to Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 3),

> a text will be defined as a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality. If any of these standards is not considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative.

The seven standards of textuality have the following characteristics:

Cohesion: This results from "the grammatical dependencies which help to make the different parts of a text stick together in a cohesive manner" (Ibid).

Coherence: By coherence it is assumed that a text cannot convey a meaning unless there is an interaction between world knowledge and text knowledge; i.e., there should be an interaction between what people have in mind and what the text presents as knowledge.

Intentionality and acceptability: Even if a text is cohesive and coherent, it "must be intended to be a text and accepted as such in order to be utilized in communicative interaction" (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 113). In other words, the producer of the text must intend to contribute towards some goal (e.g. giving/demanding information) and the receiver of the text must accept that it does indeed fulfill some such purpose. Intentionality, then, concerns the writer's/speaker's attitude that a given text is intended to be cohesive and coherent so that it fulfils the producer's goal; whereas, acceptability concerns the reader/listener's attitude that a given text should be accepted as cohesive and coherent.

Informativity: This concerns the degree of expectedness in a given text; i.e. the extent to which a message is new to the receiver.

Situationality: This concerns the factors which make a text relevant to the situation of occurrence.

Intertextuality: This is about the situation in which a text makes sense since it depends on previously encountered texts.

3.2.2.3.8 The legitimacy of the textlinguistic approach

There are two main arguments for the legitimacy of the textlinguistic approach:

1. Textlinguistics is based on the fact that certain grammatical phenomena, such as aspects of reference, pronominalization…, can only be accounted for within texts and by text grammar.
2. It is also based on the psychological reality of discourse. More specifically, the language user is said to be able to detect hybridization, i.e. the co-existence of different text types within a sample text, by referring to his internalized knowledge of what constitutes a particular text type. He is also capable of anticipating the likely development of a given text on the basis of this internalized knowledge (Hatim and Mason 1990: 159).

3.2.2.4 The application of textlinguistics in the field of translation

The tremendous impact of textlinguistics on translation studies, along with other developments in sociolinguistics, discourse studies, pragmatics, semiotics, artificial intelligence, and conversation analysis, has been widely recognized by translation scholars such as Hatim & Mason (1990: 35), Neubert (1981), Heliel (1994) and Chesterman (1989), to mention but a few. According to Hatim and Mason (1990: 35), textlinguistics has

> provided a new direction for translation studies. It is one which restores to the translation the central role in a process of cross-cultural communication and ceases to regard equivalence as a matter of entities within texts.

With this regard, Chesterman (1989: 141) also states that

> textlinguistics is of obvious significance to translation theory, both in specifying the relevant textual features of the source text and in deciding the appropriate text-production strategies when composing the target text.

Similarly, Heliel (1994: 61) stresses the important role of textlinguistics in translation studies in general and translation training in particular:

> It is our belief that one of the new trends in linguistics which could give the learners insight and help them adopt an efficient strategy in translation is discourse analysis. Discourse analysis offers a wide range of textual knowledge and structure to the translator whether in the SL or the TL. Within discourse analysis some notions are quite useful to the translator, particularly, the notion of macro-structure in text types, cohesion, coherence, thematic structure, fronting and focus.

As for Jabr (2001), textlinguistics as "an evolution in mainstream linguistics" has had a great impact on translation firstly because it has shifted the focus from the sentence to the text as a unit of translation and secondly because it has redefined the concept of "types of translation". Concerning the first point, he argues that

> the sentence-based approach to translation which has gained currency and is still in use, has given way to the discourse-based approach. However, despite the fact that the sentence continues to be a more manageable unit of translation (Newmark 1988), it has to be tackled in view of its relations with the neighbouring sentences in the entire paragraph (or text) rather than as an independent entity. In other words, the sentence should be viewed as one brick that contributes to building the entire text. (Jabr 2001: 305)

As far as the types of translation are concerned, and while not totally discarding the age-old dichotomy between literal and free translation, Jabr maintains that

> the type of translation is tightly tied up with the emphasis of the given task. That is, translation can be word-for-word, literal, faithful, semantic if more emphasis is laid on the SL; or adaptation, free, idiomatic or communicative if the emphasis is on the TL (Newmark 1988). Furthermore, this is partly motivated by the purpose of the translation. (Ibid)

In addition to seeing the traditional types of translation (literal vs. free) in the light of the degree of emphasis and the purpose of the task, texlinguistics, according to Jabr, following Bühler (1965) and Hatim and Mason (1990), has also unveiled other influential factors which "dictate the appropriate type of translation", namely, language function (expressive, informative or vocative) and text type (expository, argumentative and instructional). Thus, literal or semantic translation would be appropriate for an expressive text, whereas free or communicative translation would be most appropriate for informative or vocative texts. Moreover, the source text type as a macro entity has to be taken into account in the act of translating. However, Jabr makes the point that the "translator may vary his translation method at any point in the text" given the fact that a text may exhibit various language functions (Ibid: 306).

To see the application of textlinguistics to translation studies, three important contributions will be looked at, namely, Neubert's concept of parallel texts, House's text analysis model (1977) (1997) and Hatim and Mason's contrastive discourse model (1990) (1997).

3.2.2.4.1 Parallel texts

According to Neubert (1981: 143), the biggest challenge for translation scholars and practitioners is "how to achieve a target [text] which can serve as an adequate replica of the source text" or, to quote Chesterman, "how to avoid the problem of translated texts that betray themselves as translations" (Chesterman 1989: 141). To overcome this challenge, Neubert suggests resorting to the insights of textlinguistics. One of these main insights is the recognition that

> the source text is textually different. It is a different text. It is couched in a different world of discourse because it is syntactically, lexically and stylistically rooted in the communicative matrix of the source language community: it is structured and functionally efficient with regard to the communicative needs in typical communication situations. Its linguistic layout corresponds to the source speaker or reader's pattern of expectation.

In the light of this, translating texts, according to Neubert, is similar to a transplant operation since a ST belonging to a particular body of texts is transplanted, (i.e. translated), into a different body of texts leading to the possibility of rejection because of incompatibility. Target readers in general are not unaware of this incompatibility phenomenon and the uneasy feeling that it generates. This vague feeling may be attributed to the flow of information being hampered. Concerning this particular point, Baker (1992: 112) says that

> a text has features of organization which distinguish it from non-text, that is a random collection of sentences and paragraphs. These features are language and culture-specific just like collocational and grammatical patterning. Each linguistic community has preferred ways of organizing its various types of discourse. This is why target readers can often identify what appears to be a lexically and grammatically "normal" text as a translation, or as "foreign".

Consequently, Baker adds that

> the translator will need to adjust certain features of source-text organization in line with preferred ways of organizing discourse in the target language… The ultimate aim of a translator in most cases is to achieve a measure of equivalence at text level rather than at word level or phrase level.

For Neubert, following textlinguistic insights such as those by Van Dijk (1977) and (1981), the incompatibility feeling can be accounted for by directing attention to "those supra-sentential macro-structures that are responsible for textness" in a particular language (Neubert 1981: 149-150). Translating, therefore, for Neubert consists of

> carrying out a continual decision process which proceeds as a sequence or rather sequences of options along segments of texts which can be identified as so-called units of translation. These all-important units stand in a very characteristic functional relationship to the textual superstructure. They are derived from it. Solving the problems of bilingual mediation, then, comes down to isolating just those subtextual units which can serve as starting blocks for a successful carry-over of discrete or relatively discrete items of information. Those units are certainly larger than words or phrases. They may coincide with sentences but very often they transcend sentence boundaries. It is exactly at this point where the macrostructures discussed earlier fall into place in the process of translating or interpreting. Failure to identify macro-structures as units of translation produces an inadequate target text. (Ibid)

In the same vein, Neubert points to how "the lack of original impact of a target text compared to its original turns out to be the incompatibility of a translation in relation to the textual naturalness of all real possible sets of texts in the target language. (Ibid: 144). By placing the incompatibility of a translation in its relation with "the textual naturalness of all real and possible sets of texts in the target language", Neubert brings in the concept of intertextuality. Like Hatim and Mason who define intertextuality in terms of how "texts depend on one another, this being a precondition for textual intelligibility" (Hakim & Mason 1990: 241), Neubert refers in general terms to the relatedness of texts to one another within the same language and across languages as in translation. As alternative terms to 'intertextuality', Neubert uses the concept of background texts and parallel texts:

> Background texts stand in paradigmatic relation to a particular (source) text… It is produced and understood in terms of this larger paradigm of discourse. (Neubert 1981: 146)

Thus, the source text is thought of as a text that is both embedded in and differentiated from background texts. Similarly, the target text is also thought of as a text that is related by target language receivers to the set of target language background texts. But here the relation is made by reference to a particular class of texts, called parallel texts by Neubert. These refer to

> the instance of a type of discourse that readers and listeners of the target language are used to expect under identical or similar communicative conditions and form that group of background texts with which translations strive in vain to compete. (Ibid: 147)

It is when translating into the foreign language (active translation) rather than into the mother-tongue (passive translation) that the importance of the concepts of "background texts" and "parallel texts" becomes clear (Ibid). In active translation, the translator has to deal with target language textual conventions much more consciously, taking into consideration the background and parallel texts of the target language. In passive translation, however, there is, generally, a less conscious effort by translators given their supposedly general textual competence in the mother tongue. The exception here concerns certain fields of technical or official discourse in which translators' textual competence may not be adequate.

To close this first section on the application of textlinguistics in the field of translation as viewed by Neubert, it would be worthwhile commenting on the author's position concerning the translation process. According to Neubert, the translation process should be regarded as an intertextual operation:

> the treatment of the translation process and its results as intertextual strategy can serve to improve language mediation itself and above all, to make the teaching and interpreting more effective (Ibid: 149).

More importantly, he even suggests that translatability can be equated with intertextuality:

> From the point of view of textlinguistics, the key notion of translatability is in fact synonymous with intertextuality… Training in translation and interpreting, then, is training in awareness of intertextuality (Ibid: 154).

The present study adopts the semiotic concept of intertextuality, as discussed by Neubert here and by Hatim and Mason (1990), especially when dealing with genre as a macro-sign.

3.2.2 4.2 House's text analysis model

House's text analysis and translation assessment model (1977) sets as a primary goal the characterization of the individual text's function (i.e. the individual function of the source text and that of the translation text). Since the context of situation is intimately related to its text, and since, as she defines it, the function of an individual text is "the use which the text has in the particular context of situation" (1997: 36), characterizing this individual text function, "involves a systematic linguistic-pragmatic analysis of the text in its context of situation leading to the textual profile of the text" (Ibid). This text analysis is in fact an attempt to establish register membership.

In order to analyze the context of situation, House uses Crystal and Davy's (1969) model of situational dimensions while at the same time introducing some slight modifications into it. The resulting new model of the context of situation thus has the following shape:

A. Dimensions of language user
    1. geographical origin
    2. social class
    3. time
B. Dimensions of language use
    1. medium: simple / complex
    2. participation: simple / complex
    3. social role relationship
    4. social attitude
    5. province

According to House (1997: 42), the textual profile of a text, which characterizes the function of the source text and which constitutes the yardstick with which translation quality is evaluated, is obtained by using the situational dimensions to analyze the source text and by correlating the linguistic features of the text (syntactic, lexical and textual) with these situational dimensions.

A similar text analysis process is undertaken on the translation text, and the textual profile that ensues is matched against that of the source text. If the translation text does not match the source text along a particular contextual dimension, then this is taken to be an error, or more precisely, a "covertly erroneous error", using House's terminology (Ibid: 45). This is different from an "overtly erroneous error", where the error is the result of either "a mismatch of the denotative meanings of the source and translation text elements, or a breach of the target language system, more specifically cases of ungrammaticality and dubious acceptability" (Ibid). Concerning this point, House maintains that in translation training, more attention has "traditionally been given to overtly erroneous errors whereas covertly erroneous errors, which demand a much more qualitative-descriptive in-depth analysis, have often been neglected" (Ibid).

The original form of House's text analysis and translation assessment model (1977) is reproduced below:

Source Text (ST):

1. **Analysis of ST**
    - Dimensions of language user
        (1) geographical origin
        (2) social class
        (3) time
    - Dimensions of language use

(1) medium:
    - syntactic means
    - lexical means
    - textual means

(2) participation:
    - syntactic means
    - lexical means
    - textual means

(3) social role relationship
    - syntactic means
    - lexical means
    - textual means

(4) social attitude
    - syntactic means
    - lexical means
    - textual means

(5) province
    - syntactic means
    - lexical means
    - textual means

2. Statement of function:

This statement is obtained by looking at the ways in which the situational dimensions are linguistically marked in the text, and the way they contribute to the ideational and interpersonal functions of language.

3. ST and TT comparison:

Here mismatches between the ST and TT along the contextual dimensions are noted.

4. Statement of quality:

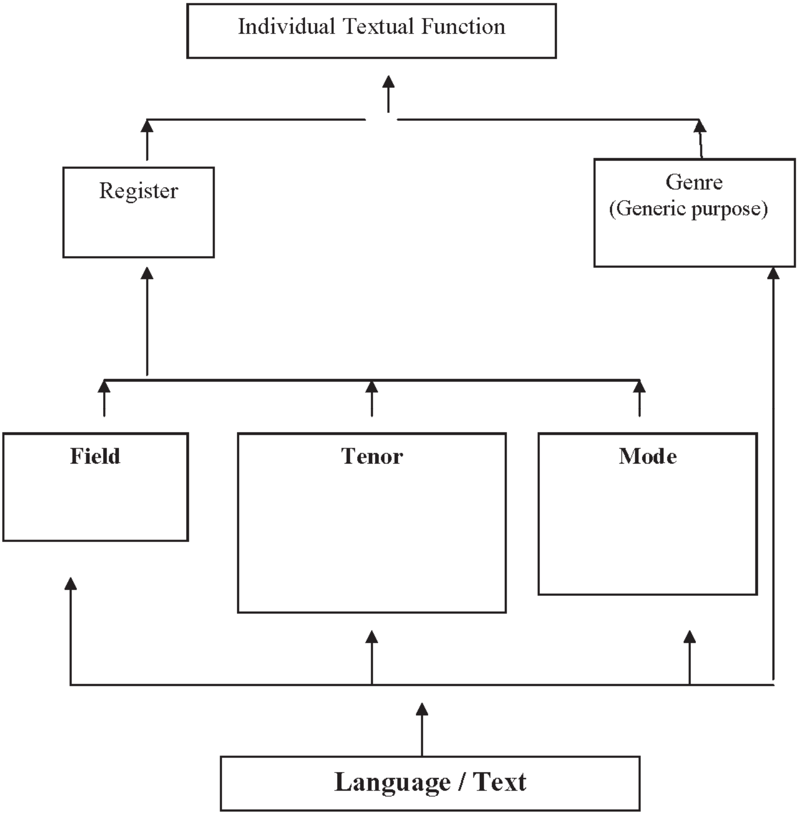
This statement concerns any alterations of the ideational or interpersonal components of the ST in the translation text.

When it was first published, House's (1977) work was hailed as an important contribution to translation studies, and more specifically to translation evaluation, since it sought to place translation quality assessment on empirical and objective footing. In spite of this, it did not escape some criticism, especially with regard to the analytical categories used. These were considered too "rigid" (Newmark 1981: 182) and "too complicated to be used in translation classes or by practising translators working under time pressure" (Slote 1978).

Heeding these criticisms and taking into consideration new developments within translation theory, House (1997) modifies her original model by "re-grouping" the analytical categories "into fewer and more general ones" (Ibid: 105); e.g., field and tenor. Moreover, she incorporates the concept of genre in order "to account for the semiotic dimension and different types of discourses"(Ibid).

The revised model has included several categories of Crystal and Davy within the more general and straightforward Hallidayan categories of field, tenor and mode, which are themselves linked to the individual text function along with the category of genre. The revised model of House for analyzing and comparing original and translation texts and which consists of four levels (function of the individual text, genre, register and language/ text) is shown below:

Figure 1: (Adapted from House's revised text analysis model 1997)



The analytical procedure of the revised model for analyzing and assessing texts thus looks as follows:

- Field

. lexical means
. syntactic means
. textual means

- Tenor

a) Author's temporal, social and geographical provenance

. lexical means

        . syntactic means
        . textual means
    b) Author's personal stance
        . lexical means
        . syntactic means
        . textual means
    c) Social role relationship
        . lexical means
        . syntactic means
        . textual means
    d) Social attitude
        . lexical means
        . syntactic means
        . textual means
- Mode
    a) Medium
        . lexical means
        . syntactic means
        . textual means
    b) Participation
        . lexical means
        . syntactic means
        . textual means
- Genre

3.2.2.4.3 The Contrastive Discourse Model (Hatim & Mason (1990) (1997)):

This model investigates the relationships which exist between the different elements of discourse and the context of the communicative activity. The elements of discourse could be a word, a phrase, a clause, a sequence of clauses, a paragraph, or even the text itself as a unit of communication in its own right. The context of the communicative activity in this model is seen in terms of three dimensions: a communicative dimension or register, a pragmatic dimension and a semiotic dimension. Language users are believed to make use of these dimensions of context when they are engaged in a given communicative activity, although this remains at a generally unconscious level. Translators as special language users who are engaged in the transfer of messages from one language into another also have to operate within the requirements of these three dimensions of context. However, not all translators make a conscious use of these dimensions in their work.

In describing the characteristics of each of these dimensions, Hatim & Mason (1990) maintain that these can be used as a set of procedures which guide the translator in his/her translation activity; that is to say, as “a basis for motivated choices that can recreate the intended meaning and relay it in the target language” (Hatim & Mason 1990: 238). The three dimensions of context constitute vital elements in the communication activity. In fact, taken together, they constitute

> both a point of departure and a destination for text users in their attempts to communicate or appreciate the meaning of a text. (Hatim & Mason 1997: 25)

But what do these dimensions of context actually consist of?

3.2.2.4.3.1 The communicative dimension:

As previously mentioned, language users “operate within constraints imposed by the particular use to which they put their language: field, mode, tenor” (Hatim & Mason 1997: 25). These situational features characterize a text in relation to its context. When confronting a text, language users construct in their minds a model of the text’s context. At first, they observe what is taking place and assign to the text a certain field. Secondly, they note the personal relationships involved and assign a certain tenor. Finally, they note the role that is being played by the language and assign to it a mode. In other words, they seek to identify the register membership of that text, which constitutes an important stage in the processing of discourse.

The most important of these situational features, according to Hatim and Mason (1997: 25-26), is tenor which deals with the degree of formality of the relation between interlocutors:

> The level of formality overlaps in a number of significant ways with field of discourse, on the one hand, and with mode, on the other hand, giving rise to technicality/formality (overlap with field) and functional tenor (overlap with mode).

The concept of functional tenor is defined as:

> the category used to describe what language is being used for in the situation. Is the speaker trying to persuade, to exhort? (Gregory and Caroll 1978: 53 in Hatim and Mason 1997: 26).

In other words, following Hatim & Mason (1997: 27),

> functional tenor (e.g. persuader, discipliner, and informer) thus builds into the analysis a set of role relationships obtaining in a given situation (e.g. politician vs. the electorate, reporter vs. particular readers).

Kussmaul (1995), making use of House's situational model (1977), does not use the concept of tenor as such; instead, he employs two concepts which are subsumed by tenor, namely, the concept of social role relationship and the concept of social attitude. The first covers three types of social role relationships:

A. equal-to-equal
B. lower-to-higher
C. higher-to-lower

The second concept refers to the various degrees of social distance or proximity; i.e., either very little social distance or a higher degree of social distance.

For the translator, identifying the register membership of a source text and then relaying it in a target text thus constitutes a crucial stage in the translating operation.

3.2.2.4.3.2 The pragmatic dimension

Handling text in context, according to Hatim & Mason (1990: 55), involves not only identifying the register membership of a text, but also inferring the underlying intentions or pragmatic values which are at once subsumed by each element of discourse, and which also result from the interaction of these pragmatic values. In fact, it is these interactions which enable language users to perceive or "locate a given message" in its natural habitat – human intentionality (Ibid: 58). In other words, these communicative intentions serve an overall rhetorical purpose or a global intention and lead to the notion of the illocutionary structure of a text (Ibid: 77).

Other developments in pragmatics, which are also important in handling text in context, include the notion of the 'co-operative' maxims which interlocutors have to abide by (Grice 1975), the notions of presuppositions, inference, text act, relevance, effectiveness and efficiency. Thus, dealing with text in context does not merely concern the referential meaning and "matching SL and TL registers" (Hatim & Mason 1990: 55); the translator also has to relay the illocutionary force. According to Hatim & Mason (1990: 76),

> Equivalence is to be achieved not only of propositional content but also of illocutionary force. At discourse level, communicative failure (relatively speaking) of a translation may be attributed to failure to represent speech acts adequately.

House (1997) sees no point in including a pragmatic dimension when dealing with text in context. Hatim and Mason (1990), on the other hand, draw attention to the fact that this is most important, especially in cases where intended meaning varies between the SL and TL texts norms:

> From the point of view of translators, this [i.e. the pragmatic dimension] is important not so much because they might be unable to perceive intended meaning (competence in this area being a sine qua non of professional translating) but rather because in certain cases expression of intended meaning is subject to subtle variation between SL and TL norms and equivalence may therefore be difficult to achieve (Ibid: 57).

3.2.2.4.3.3 The semiotic dimension

This is another aspect of the context of the communicative activity. According to Hatim and Mason, in addition to the communicative and the pragmatic dimensions,

> There is a third dimension which we shall call semiotic, treating a communicative item, including its pragmatic value, as a sign within a system of signs (1990: 57).

The phrase "as a sign within a system signs" introduces a key concept within this dimension, namely, interaction. For Hatim and Mason (1990: 229), this concept can be seen at different levels of the communicative activity; i.e. at the level of interaction between co-communicants, at the level of interaction within the text, and finally at the level of interaction between the text itself and other texts.

Concerning the first type of interaction, interlocutors carry out communicative transactions which reflect a certain level of technicality (field), a certain mode of language (written, spoken, etc.), and a certain degree of formality (tenor), depending on who they are and what they are doing with language.

The second type of interaction, i.e. interaction within the text, concerns, among other things, the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships between text elements, in addition to the relationship between the pragmatic values of these elements: "the perception of this interaction of signs within a text constitutes the basis of micro-text processing" (Ibid: 229).

It is the third type of interaction that has pride of place in this interactive theory. In this type of interaction, the text itself is regarded as a sign among other signs, which "acquires significance within a cultural context" and is recognized as "an instance of a given genre, and as an expression of a particular discourse" (Ibid). It is also seen as an instance of a certain text type. In other words, text-users, in their processing of discourse, "perceive ideational meanings within a given field (i.e. genre), textual meanings within a given mode (i.e. text) and interpersonal meanings within a given tenor (i.e. discourse)" (Hatim and Mason 1997: 28), and then link these perceptions through an intertextuality process to other genres, discourses and texts which are internalized in their minds.

As far as the translator is concerned, it is, according to Hatim and Mason

> the perception of pragmatic and semiotic values which enable translators to transfer the entirety of the message. (Ibid: 59).

This is particularly so since translation

> primarily deals with signs and attempts to preserve semiotic as well as other pragmatic and communicative properties which signs display. (Ibid: 69)

However, this transfer is not possible without certain adjustments on the part of the translator due to the nature of the translation process itself. The latter involves source and target languages whose generic, discoursal and textual traditions may vary (Ibid: 69).

Before moving on to consider how the translator should deal with this semiotic dimension of texts in his or her text processing and rendering operations, it would be worthwhile at this point to clarify the semiotic concepts of genre, discourse and intertextuality.

3.2.2.4.3.1 Genre

According to Bakhtin (1986: 121), "the diverse areas of human activity involve the use of language" which takes the form of "individual concrete utterances (oral or written) by participants" in these diverse areas. Moreover, these utterances are said "to reflect the specific conditions and goals of each such area" through their content, linguistic style (choice of vocabulary, phraseology and grammatical structures) and compositional structure. Consequently, each one of these areas of human activity in which language is used is believed "to develop its own relatively stable types of these utterances which are referred to as speech genres.

Hatim (2000: 11-12) refers to the linguistic means of representing these different areas as ‘textual practices’. A distinction is thus established between “cultural entities (i.e. products of socio-economic, geopolitical or scientific technological forces and institutions” and textual practices.

Taking into consideration speech genres is of paramount importance to both Bakhtin and Hatim, each from his own perspective. For Bakhtin,

> A clear idea of the nature of the utterance in general and … of various speech genres is necessary, we think, for research in any special area. To ignore the nature of the utterance or to fail to consider the peculiarities of generic subcategories of speech in any area of linguistic study leads to perfunctoriness and excessive abstractness, distorts the historicity of the research, and weakens the link between language and life. (Bakhtin 1986: 122)

For Hatim, the issue lies at the very heart of the notion of ‘culture’:

> The tendency in certain languages and cultures has been systematically to overlook or treat as secondary the macro-structural side. It will be further argued that it is those neglected aspects of textual practices (the discourse, the genre and the actual texts that typify a given mode of communication) which ultimately set the framework for the act of cultural and linguistic boundaries. In fact, the obsession with the word as an isolated verbal sign can be made to work most effectively only when seen within authentic textual practices. (Hatim 2000: 12)

Genres are considered by Hatim & Mason (1990: 140) as a “set of features which we perceive as being appropriate to a given social occasion”. This social occasion itself is taken to include, among other things, “how we do things with language when, for example, we write letters to the editor, letters of application for jobs or personal letters” (Ibid). In another more detailed definition, they follow Kress (1985) and maintain that genres are

> conventionalized forms of texts which reflect the functions and goals involved in particular social occasions as well as the purposes of the participants in them… From a socio-semiotic point of view, this particular use of language is best viewed in terms of norms which are internalized as part of the ability to communicate. (Ibid: 69)

Related to the notion of genre, there is a derived notion, namely that of the ‘genrelet’, which was suggested by Hatim. According to Haddad (1995: 25 – 26):

> the difference between a genre and a genrelet is that a genrelet is highly conventionalized in the sense that it involves more specific topics [and] more specific roles of participants on the one hand, and that it operates within constraints imposed by structure as well as language on the other hand.

Examples of genrelets include death notices, wedding invitations, birth announcements, etc.

In what follows, genres will be discussed in terms of their forms, their types and their main features.

A/ the forms of genres: Genres differ from one another mainly because of differences in their structures. By structure is meant “the internal relationships through which the elements of a given text are organized” (Haddad 1995: 27). These elements of structure can be obligatory or optional. More importantly, these different structures themselves seem to be the products of different goals which are pursued by language users. In this connection, Rothery (1985), cited in Haddad (Ibid), states:

> Genres differ in having different goals and in being structured differently to achieve these goals. Structure shows the stages through which we can go to achieve our goals through language.

Compared with some genres whose structures are more or less flexible (e.g. service encounters), obligatory elements appear “in a highly predictable sequence” in other types of genre such as wedding invitation cards, death notices… Consequently, participants are controlled in their interactions by the structural requirements of the genrelet. Moreover, the register here, (field, tenor, mode), is characterized by its stability (Haddad 1995: 34-36).

B/ The types of genre: Since genres differ from one another mainly because of differences in their structures, it has been proposed that a classification of genres could be made on the basis of the generic structure of a given text (Kent 1985 cited in Haddad 1995: 50). This classification, however, is directed to match “the generic expectations of the competent reader and not those of the naive” who has not internalized the conventions of genre (Ibid). The different types of genre, in other words, are placed on a spectrum in such a way as to correlate with the expectations of a sophisticated reader. With this regard, Haddad says:

> At one extreme of [a] spectrum, there lies the highly predictable and formulaic text which matches the competent reader’s generic expectations… At the other extreme, there lies the highly unpredictable, unformulaic and uncertain text which violates the competent reader’s generic expectations. This super-genre corresponds with the super-reader.

> The super-genre cannot be classified generically since it always deforms the textual generic conventions on which the competent reader depends for identifying the generic membership of a given text (Ibid: 50).

C/ The main features of genre: In addition to generic structure as the main device for identifying different types of genres, there are also a set of features which are usually associated with a particular genre. These features have to do with the pragmatic level, the semantic level and the surface level (i.e. the phonological, lexical, syntactic features and the graphic representation). However, the distribution of these features is not even in all genres; some genres foreground some particular features such as for example phonology or syntax while other genres disregard some other specific features (Ibid: 54).

I. The Pragmatic Level of Genre Membership

As mentioned above, generic structure is one of the main devices for differentiating different types of genre. However, it has to be recalled that behind any generic structure there is the text producer's particular intention or goal which is realized in a particular structure and thereby points to a particular genre (Rothery 1985).

Since intentions and goals are the domain of pragmatics, it becomes evident that the pragmatic dimension of language has a paramount role to play in language communication.

Apart from intentions and goals, there are also other pragmatic features which help identify a particular type of genre. These features are related to the channel of communication (whether it is spoken as in a political speech or written as in an editorial), the setting (i.e. when and where a given text can be used; an editorial, for example, can only appear in a certain place of prominence, e.g. on the front page of a quality newspaper). These features are also connected with the addresser-addressee relationships (a scientific article, for instance, is written by a specialist for a particular type of readership).

II. The Semantic Level of Genre Membership

Texts belonging to the same genre are characterized by "topical unity and logico-semantic coherence" (Haddad 1995: 61). A scientific article will be concerned with scientific matters only and will not be expected to deal with literary or religious themes.

III. The Surface Level of Genre Membership

Some surface level elements can also be invoked by language users in the process of differentiating and identifying types of genres. According to Haddad (Ibid: 63),

> the surface structure has to do with metric and phonetic regularities, specialized vocabularies, formulaic expressions or particular characteristics of pronunciation or graphic realization.

Thus, formulaic expressions such as “once upon a time” are used by language users to infer a pragmatic intention which is to narrate.

IV. Register and Genre Membership

There is a strong relationship between genre and register. According to House (1997: 106):

> Registers are the result of decisions inside a genre choice concerning field, mode and tenor.

She further adds:

> The relationship between genre and register is then such that generic choices are realized by register choices, which in turn are realized by linguistic choices that make up linguistic structures in the instantiation of a text.

Tony Bex (1996:13) cites the case of the recipe as a genre which may have a variety of potential realizations. As an example, he gives the following two recipes: a basic one and its variant.

The basic recipe
Cheese – stuffed eggs
Cooking time about 8 minutes
You will need for 4 servings:
4 eggs
salt and pepper
1 oz. butter
3 oz. grated cheddar cheese
½ teaspoon made mustard
8 small rounds buttered brown bread

1) Hard boil the eggs and cut in half lengthwise. Trim egg bases so they stand firmly.
2) Scoop out yolks and sieve.
3) Blend with salt, pepper and butter.
4) Mix in cheese and mustard; spoon filling into egg whites.
5) Place on bread rounds and serve with a crisp green salad.

A variant recipe
Chermoula
A Moroccan Marinade for Fish

Every town, even every family has a special combination for this marinade in which every type of fish big or small, whole, filleted or cut in chunks, is left to absorb the flavours. Different herbs are used: parsley instead of coriander, spices in varying proportions, onion instead of garlic – so you may feel free to use the following list of ingredients as a guide and suit your taste.

It is marvellous and I strongly recommend it, but not for a fish with delicate flavour.

The following measures make a rather large quantity but it keeps well for several days if covered by a thin layer of oil.

1 large bunch fresh coriander,
1 tablespoon paprika very finely chopped
1 very good pinch cayenne
1 large bunch parsley, very finely chopped
Juice of 1 or 2 lemons, or 150 ml (¼ pint)
vinegar
6 large cloves garlic, crushed
300 ml (½ pint) olive or other oil
1 tablespoonful cumin
1 teaspoon coriander

Beat all the ingredients well together. Scale, gut and clean the fish necessary and marinate for at least an hour (you may leave it overnight).If the fish is large, put some of the marinade inside as well. (Roden: 1985, page 20).

Tony Bex's distinction between the basic recipe and its variant is the result of an analytical process in which he compares the similar and dissimilar features of the one and the other. However, prior to this, he first undertakes a detailed characterization of the main features of the basic recipe and enumerates the following main features:

Some characteristics of the basic recipe

- The vocabulary is derived from the field of food preparation
- Cohesion by ellipsis:
  Ex: hard boil the eggs and cut --------in half lengthwise
- The inclusion of three information headings:
  . Cheese-stuffed eggs (the title)

. Cooking time
. You will need for 4 servings

- A list of ingredients with reduced grammatical form
- A set of instructions introduced by imperative verbs
- Ellipsis of pronouns and articles and the use of abbreviated measurements.

Comparing the characteristics of the variant with those of the basic recipe.

Similarities with the basic recipe

- The presence of an uninformative title
- The list of ingredients
- The set of (unnumbered) instructions
- Omitting “of” and using abbreviated measurements

Differences with the basic recipe

- The first paragraph is not really necessary for the set of subsequent instructions.
- The author here seeks to introduce a degree of intimacy by incorporating informal forms.
- Unlike the impersonal nature of the basic recipe, the variant recipe is more personal as it contains evaluative statements and addresses the readers more directly.

Following this analysis, Tony Bex reaches the conclusion that variety within a genre is a result of “the writer’s relationship both to the subject matter of the text and to the potential readership” (Bex 1996: 168). Thus, the basic recipe is intended for those who are not especially expert cooks; hence, the use of the most basic information. In the variant recipe, however, the readers are assumed to be not only skilled at cooking but also interested in learning about the cultures where these dishes originate.

The similarity of the variant to a basic genre form, according to Bex, is due to the existence of certain obligatory elements which are common to both the basic and the variant genre forms. The reader, in general, would, thus, expect to encounter the following ordered features:

- the name of the dish

- the ingredients (presented in columns) with reduced grammatical forms, absence of articles and the presence of abbreviations for quantities.
- a set of instructions beginning with imperative verbs and containing ellipted coreferential elements.

Away from the recipe as a genre, Bakhtin (1986: 127) also maintains that “the generic form of greeting can move from the official sphere into the sphere of familiar communication.

V. Genre and Text Classification:

It transpires from the above discussion of recipes that genre can be taken as the basis on which texts are classified as of the same kind. With this regard, Bex maintains that

> A genre, therefore, represents a set of texts which invite readers to orient themselves towards a particular social role or set of social roles. (1996: 169)

Accordingly, it could be argued that genres are psychologically real semiotic entities. Language users in general and more particularly readers are aware they are in the presence of a particular genre because they have internalized a set of other different genres and also because of their knowledge of the texts in which this particular genre may be represented.

Concerning this point, Bakhtin maintains that

> we speak in definite speech genres, that is, all our utterances have definite and relatively stable typical forms of construction on the whole… We cast our speech in definite generic forms, sometimes rigid and trite ones, sometimes more flexible, plastic and creative ones (Bakhtin 1986: 127)

Bakhtin further adds that in order to use and manipulate a genre freely and creatively, one first has to master this genre fully (Ibid). The importance of classifying texts on the basis of generic properties is quite significant for three reasons according to Bex. First, it shows that language users have an intuitive awareness that there exist different texts each with particular generic properties such as diaries, advertisements, business letters… Second, it highlights the phenomenon of language variety. Third, it enables one to deal with parody as a special use of language. (Bex 1996: 140)

3.2.2.4.3.3.2 Discourse

A. Overview and Definitions

The translator has to render the original text as faithfully as possible into the target language by choosing the right words and linguistic structures and by taking into account different types of equivalence such as lexical equivalence, syntactic equivalence, functional equivalence and cultural equivalence. However, there is another type of equivalence which is no less important, namely, discoursal equivalence (Shunnaq 1994: 103). In fact, relaying referential meaning between ST and TT items, as Mason (1994: 29) states, is sometimes less important than "relaying discoursal indices" which contribute to an overall discourse of a certain kind.

Before proceeding any further, a few words concerning the definition of the concept of discourse seem necessary. According to Mason (Ibid: 25), the term discourse has two meanings; the first, which is "standard and unproblematic" refers to "any undifferentiated stretch of language performance, spoken or written." This meaning could also be applied to the notion of "text" (3). The second meaning of discourse which is attributed to Kress (1985), following Foucault refers to

> systematically organized sets of statements which give expression to the meanings and values of an institution.

In another definition by Hatim and Mason, which is rather similar to the one just cited, discourse is characterized as follows:

> It is a mode of speaking and writing which involves the participants in adopting a particular stance/ attitude on certain areas of socio-cultural activity. (Hatim & Mason 1990: 240)

Thus, one obtains racist discourse, scientific discourse, feminist discourse, political discourse, sensational discourse… What is really important here in connection with this definition is that discourses, being modes of speaking and writing, are dependent on language; i.e. certain syntactic and semantic features correlate with certain discourses.

To illustrate further the meaning of the notion discourse, it might be useful to cite one of Hatim and Mason's examples of racist discourse. This example shows the systematic (non-accidental) use of a particular kind of vocabulary in a political speech by a British politician, Enoch Powell, concerning immigrants in Britain. The vocabulary chosen in this speech has a "dehumanizing effect" and is clearly "discriminatory". Some of the word choices opted for are: *offspring*, *coloured immigrants*, *the current rate of intake*… instead of more neutral words such as *children*, *overseas workers*, *new comers*… An extract of this speech is given below:

> By 1985 there would be in this country 3½ million coloured immigrants and their offspring. In other words, the present number would increase between two and three-fold in the next seventeen years on two assumptions, current rate of intake and current birthrate. (Hatim and Mason 1990: 141)

Shunnaq (1994: 104) uses the textlinguistic notions of monitoring and managing in the description and translation of the discourses of news broadcasting and newspapers. Monitoring and managing are defined by Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 163) as follows:

> If the dominant function of a text is to provide a reasonably unmediated account of the situation model, *situation monitoring* is being performed. If the dominant function is to guide the situation in a manner favourable to the text producer's goals, *situation management* is being carried out.

In other words, a ST can be a case in which a situation is being monitored, i.e. presented neutrally, or a case in which a situation is being managed, i.e. manipulated by the text producer to achieve a certain goal (4). It is this situation management which is reminiscent of the definitions of discourse proposed by Hatim and Mason (1990) and Mason (1994), quoted above and in which it is argued that in their way of speaking and writing, language users adopt a particular kind of attitude towards "certain areas of socio-cultural activity".

The notion of discourse meaning is obviously significant for the translator because of two reasons: first, the translator has to be aware of the managing strategies in the ST; secondly, being a target text producer, he or she has to guard against interfering with these managing strategies by incorporating his or her own to serve his specific goals.

Relevant to this discussion is Hatim and Mason's account of text typology in its relation with the notions of monitoring and managing (1990: 155). Thus, although all texts combine a certain measure of monitoring and managing, Hatim and Mason (Ibid) maintain that there is a predominance of monitoring in expository texts and a predominance of managing in argumentative and instrumental texts. These issues will be dealt with in greater detail later under text as a practice.

B. Discourse and ideology

According to Mason, the expression of ideology takes place within the semiotic categories of genre, discourse and text. In this regard he argues:

> Above all, it is our contention that these - genre, discourse, and text - are the semiotic systems within which the expression of ideology occurs and

> that the investigation of ideology is best handled within such a framework. (Mason 1994: 26)

In this section, the focus will be on the relationship between ideology and discourse, or, to be more specific, the realization of ideology within discourse. However, before addressing this matter, it is important to define the concept of ideology and then compare it with that of discourse.

Ideology can be defined with reference to two perspectives: a Marxist and a non-Marxist. From a Marxist perspective, ideology can be defined as:

> The system of ideas and representations which dominate the mind of a man or a social group (Althusser 1971: 149 cited in Williams 1992: 76)

This system of ideas and representations which, according to Marxists presents reality in a distorted way, is deployed by the ruling class in order to maintain the subordinate role of other classes. The way this is carried out is explained by Williams (Ibid):

> The ruling class uses state power to initially create, and then to maintain control over the Ideological State Apparatuses, which Althusser lists as "religion, education, family, the legal system, the trade union system, communication and culture.

From a non-Marxist perspective, ideology can be defined following Fowler (1986: 17) as:

> a set of propositions (or assumptions) that we hold (consciously or unconsciously) about the basic make up of the world.

Within the same perspective, Wimber (1985: 75) argues that ideology is

> a lens which colours, clarifies, classifies, wraps or excludes the world.

In the same vein, Mason defines ideology as:

> The set of beliefs and values which inform an individual's or institution's view of the world and assist their interpretation of events, facts, etc. (Mason 1994: 25)

Now having defined the concepts of ideology and the concept of discourse, the question that arises is: how is ideology related to discourse? According to Mason (Ibid), discourse as "the systematically organized sets of statements which give expression to the meanings and values of an institution" is "closely bound up" with ideology as "the set of beliefs and values which inform an individual's or institution's view of the world and assist their interpretation of events, facts, etc." In other words, while the individual's perception or interpretation of the world is mediated through ideology, his perception of discoursal features is also influenced by "his previous experience of discourse or discursive history".

Pecheux (1982), cited by Macdonell (Macdonell 1986: 45 in Williams 1992: 82), argues that "discourse is one of ideology's specific forms" and that "discourses are set up in what are ultimately antagonistic relations" within the ideological state apparatuses. In other words, it is the institutions and the positions occupied by people within these institutions which determine the meanings of a particular discourse. Elaborating further on this point, Macdonell maintains that

> discourse is not the individual's way of inhabiting language, a kind of set expression. The language takes on meaning and discourses are constructed through struggles. Pecheux's arguments, as already stated, stress that the "material character" of meaning does not lie in its being determined by linguistic elements ("signifiers"). Nor does the meaning of a word exist "in itself". Instead, meaning exists antagonistically: it comes from positions in struggle so that "words… change their meaning according to the positions" from which they are used… The positions are ideological [and are] inscribed in the practices of class or other struggles between and within apparatuses (Ibid: 47- 48).

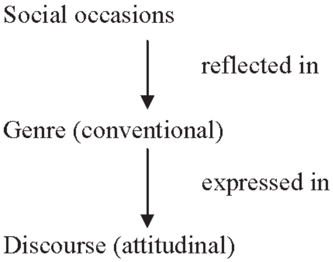
C. Discourse and genre:

Genres have been defined in section 3. 2. 2. 4. 3. 3. 1 above as "a set of features which we perceive as being appropriate to a given social occasion" (Hatim and Mason 1990: 140) or, alternatively, as "conventional forms of texts" which reflect particular social occasions (Ibid: 241). Since a social occasion involves participants who are engaged in achieving their purposes through language, these participants, according to Hatim and Mason (Ibid), "are bound to be involved in attitudinally determined expression characteristic of these events". In other words, different genres (such as an editorial, a book-review, a political speech, a scientific article...) call for particular types of discourse or attitude. In a scientific article, for instance, the attitude is typically neutral, objective, or to borrow Hatim and Mason's words, non-evaluative, as it is apparent in the choice of words (non-emotive words) and structures (a predominance of passive structures).

In short, a particular kind of discourse is influenced by the particular genre in which it occurs. Language users learn to associate a given discourse with a particular genre as part of their language learning.

Discourses are consequently “modes of talking and thinking which, like genres, can become ritualized” (Hatim and Mason 1990: 71). Hatim and Mason represent the interrelationship between discourse and genre in the following manner:

Figure 2: The interrelationship between social occasion, genre and discourse



D. Discourse and texture:

Recalling that the “meaning [of a given discourse] exists antagonistically” and that it is the result of “positions in struggle”, we can then safely assume that words acquire different meanings depending on “the positions from which they are used”, or to put it differently, words change their meanings according to the position a person adopts within a particular institutional area, be it religious, educational, familial...

This idea will obviously have far reaching implications. First, it will determine what should or should not be said within a particular genre such as a political speech, a sermon, an editorial, a report, a news broadcast, etc. Concerning news broadcasts, for example, and depending on the general policy of a particular radio station, certain news items will be covered and others disregarded; general or vague descriptions will be opted for in order to lessen the impact of the news item or, on the contrary, more specific and concrete words will be selected in order to intensify the impact of this news item (Shunnaq 1994: 112). Secondly, the idea that words acquire different meanings depending on “the positions from which they are used”, will also dictate a particular kind of sequencing of words and expressions in discourse (Pecheux 1982 in Macdonell 1986: 45-48). This sequencing is the domain of texture (see section 2.2.2.4.3.2 below). In this connection, Mason (1994: 31) states that

> the textual devices of the source text combine in the expression of a discourse which relays an ideology.

Making a similar point, Macdonell argues that

> what is at stake in discursive struggles may well be this ordering and combining of words. (Macdonell 1986: 47-48)

Thus, for example, the recurrence or repetition of a lexical item is a textual device which is dictated by the particular stance that is adopted by a speaker/writer; i.e. it has a discourse value as it is used "to assert and reaffirm one's viewpoint" (BeauGrande & Dressler 1981: 55). Similarly, texture for Hatim and Mason is taken to be influenced by discourse along with text structure and genre; it is therefore considered as "motivated choice":

> When texts are seen as social events, the links between text producer, text expression and meaning have to be considered not as random but as motivated… Text producers make their choices in such a way as best to serve their own communicative ends and within an institutional setting which exerts its own influence on linguistic expression. (1990: 193)

The textual (or cohesive) devices, following Hasan's model, in Halliday and Hasan (1989), are divided into three main categories:

- Grammatical cohesive devices which are themselves further classified into two subclasses:
    - Reference: pronominals, demonstratives, the definite article and comparatives
    - Substitution and ellipsis: nominal, verbal and clausal
- Lexical cohesive devices which are subdivided into two subclasses:
    - General: repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, co-hyponymy…
    - Instantial: equivalence, naming, semblance
- Structural cohesive devices which involve:
    - Parallelism
    - Theme-rheme development
    - Given-new organization

(Williams 1992: 86)

E. Ideology, discourse and the translator:

As has been shown above, ideology is realized in texture. Therefore, the translator, being a text receiver and producer, has the enormous task of "perceiving the meaning potential of particular choices within the cultural and linguistic community of the source text and relaying that same potential by linguistic means to a target readership" (Mason 1994: 23) without bringing in his own ideology. However, it is a fact, according to Mason, that there exist translations which involve “systematic ideological shifts” (Ibid). The example often cited to corroborate this claim concerns the English translation of Freud’s works; this translation, according to Bruno Bettelheim (1983) cited by Mason (Ibid),

> distorted the language and hence the meaning of [the] source text, principally through systematic lexical selections that had the effect of rendering their target more clinical, more scientific, and less subjective than Freud’s original.

Thus, this translation caused Freud to be perceived in a way that was different from how he had been perceived by the source text readers. This is due to the fact that both the source text and target text are controlled by two different ideologies, namely behaviourism and humanism (Mason 1994: 24).

The divergences between ST and TT according to Mason (Ibid: 28) affect the level of “individual lexical choice” and that of structural cohesion. Concerning the first level, some changes in the TT can be merely ascribed to carelessness and are usually harmless. However, there are those changes in which word values are deliberately manipulated by flattening, slanting or sharpening them. The second level, structural cohesion, is, according to Mason, the site of more systematic divergences affecting not only the thematic structure (theme/rheme arrangement), but also other cohesive networks such as given-new organization (Ibid: 29).

Shunnaq, for his part, puts forward the view that a translator should not change the discursive values of the ST. Taking news broadcasting as an example where newscasters do resort to managing strategies, Shunnaq states that

> in such contexts, being “neutral” and “objective” by no means consists in a suppression of human emotions but in a conscientious attempt to take sides and display emotions to the same degree that the producers of the source text had done. (Shunnaq 1994: 112-113)

Therefore, a translator

> has to manage by deciding the inferred intention of the original news editor. (Ibid: 108)

Similarly, Williams relates the discussion of the role of the translator to the discussion of the differences in the writer’s and reader’s world view:

> When we come to the question of world view, we come to the heart of the translator’s task. The translator himself needs to see the world through two lenses at once, and to render the SL text in a way that is accessible to the TL reader while at the same time remaining as faithful as possible to the world view of the SL text. (Williams 1992: 93)

However, Williams hastens to add that the purpose of the target text may be a determining factor in deciding whether to stay within the realm of the source text world view or whether to alter this to achieve a certain goal:

> In these circumstances, the translator has to pay particular attention to the purpose of the target language text, and the nature of the audience it is geared to. Is he translating the text with the aim of persuading his readers to change their world views or is he writing to give his readership information about the source language culture (Ibid).

3.2.2.4.3.3.3 Intertextuality

Before addressing the concept of intertextuality, one has first to look at the concept of intertext. According to Haddad (1995: 92), an intertext is always associated with what has been called the “already read”; i.e. one or a number of texts which the language user (as a text producer or receiver) carries in the back of his mind and which he has to consult in order to make sense of the text at hand. In other words, as Haddad explains,

> through very carefully and well placed clues, the text producer obliges the text receiver to reread the text in order to discover the unexpected dimensions of new and wide meanings which are not found in the surface meaning of the text and which arrive to the current text from echoes outside that text (Ibid: 102).

Thus, the right interpretation and the coherence of a message hinge upon the effort exerted by the text receiver to link the intertextual traces back to their original intertexts. Coherence is, in this sense, regarded by Haddad, quoting Fairclough (1992), not

> as a property of text but rather as a property that is imposed on text by its interpreters… [It] depends on those assumptions which the interpreter brings along with him to the process of interpretation (Ibid: 106)

As a consequence, there could be no absolute coherent reading:

> Since the text is dealt with by different interpreters including the producer himself, there could be a different coherent reading of one and the same text. (Ibid).

As for intertextuality, it is considered by Haddad to be

> an operation of the mind that is obligatory for any textual decoding since the text reading is considered to be incomplete if the text receiver does not consult the related intertexts. (Ibid: 96)

This definition raises the issue of interdependence of texts, to which Hatim & Mason (1990: 241) referred and which they characterized as “a precondition for the intelligibility of texts”.

Hatim and Mason (1990: 132) suggest the elaboration of a “unified framework for analyzing intertextual reference”. This framework would consist first of a hierarchy starting with the word, phrase, clause and clause sequence, discourse and genre. Secondly, this framework would consist of a typology of intertextual signs.

Having defined the concepts of intertext and intertextuality, there is one important question concerning the function of intertextual elements within a given text. In connection with this issue, it has been argued that the inclusion of intertextual items in a given text is not unmotivated since a text producer may resort to the implementation of intertextual elements so as to attain certain goals which could be unlike those of the original:

> A text is not merely an amalgamation of ‘bits and pieces’ culled from other texts. Nor should intertextuality be understood as the mere inclusion of the occasional reference to another text. Rather, citations, references, etc. will be brought into a text for some reason. The motivated nature of this intertextual relationship may be explained in terms of such matters as text function or overall communicative purpose. (Hatim & Mason 1990: 128)

In order to shed further light on this point of motivation, two types of intertextuality have first to be distinguished, namely, actual (horizontal) intertextuality and virtual (vertical) intertextuality (Haddad 1995: 109).

With regard to actual intertextuality, “reference is made to a specific text requiring the text receiver’s knowledge of that specific original text” (Ibid: 110). This type covers quotations, allusions, irony and plagiarism. Concerning virtual intertextuality, “the reference made is so general that it brings the sense of a whole genre, discourse or text type” (Ibid).

To give just an example of the most easily recognized case within actual intertextuality, one may refer to the use of quotations. The main functions of quotations are: the appeal to the authority function, the erudite function, in which the text writer cites the key ideas of the intertext and the ornamental function, in which the text writer exhibits his knowledge (Ibid: 113).

As far as virtual intertextuality (or intertextuality via genre, discourse and text type) is concerned, some text producers use these intertextual elements to achieve certain goals which are different from those found in the original texts. Thus, as Haddad argues,

> … in order to achieve a subtle unchallengeable argument, and in order to convey an attitude, the language user resorts to a kind of intertextual generic hijacking. In other words, he hijacks some elements from one genre and infiltrates them in another completely different genre. Such a kind of virtual intertextuality can take place at the levels of phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, lexicon and/or structure and can be located at the rank of a word, a phrase, a sentence or a whole text. The hijacked intertextual signals invoke in the receiver's mind, in addition to the relevant genre, the original social occasion where the relevant genre occurs, the original participants who play roles in the original social occasion, the goals of those original participants, the original meanings associated with the original genre (Ibid: 122).

She also adds that

> the language user does more than hijack a genre; he artificially recreates a genre in order to colour the text with intelligently hidden attitudes of his own without directly imposing himself on the text. Presupposing counter strategies on the part of the text receiver before the debate takes place, he develops a more subtle, more effective and more convincing argument… The language user is there with conscious manipulative intentions, conveying information without really putting it in words and loading the text with extra meanings. More often than not, his aim is to recruit the maximal number of text receivers to share with him the same attitude (Ibid: 150).

Having examined the concepts of intertext and intertextuality, in addition to the types of intertextuality and their functions, it is appropriate now to embark on a brief discussion of how intertextual signals have been dealt with when translating. According to Hatim and Mason, there are two stages here: a recognition stage and a translation stage.

Concerning the recognition stage,

> translators encounter first of all what we here term intertextual signals. These are elements of text which trigger the process of intertextual search, setting in motion the act of semiotic processing… Having identified an intertextual signal, translators embark on the more crucial exercise of charting the various routes through which a given signal links up with its pre-text. (Hatim & Mason 1990: 13)

They also add that

> in tracing an intertextual signal to its pre-text, the semiotic area being traversed is what we have called the intertextual space. It is here that the text users assess the semiotic status of the intertextual reference (Ibid).

During the translation stage, the translator, according to Hatim and Mason, has to examine the different aspects of the intertextual sign and then decide on what aspects of that sign to maintain in the target language and what aspects to ignore. Reaching this decision, however, will depend on answering three crucial questions and setting up a hierarchy of preferences. The questions concern the "informational status of a given reference in the communicative translation (features of field, mode, tenor, time, place, etc.), the intentional status, and the semiotic status (the interaction of the intertextual sign with other signs)" (Ibid: 134).

As far as the hierarchy of preferences is concerned, they argue that the semiotic status comes first; the latter "by definition involves intentionality" since intention can be perceived only within overall interaction. The last item on the hierarchy is the informational status. Defending this hierarchical order, Hatim and Mason maintain that

> the essential point of an intertextual reference is to analyze it in terms of the contribution it makes to its host text. In travelling from source to host text, the intertextual sign undergoes substantial modification of its code of signification (Ibid: 137).

They also add that

> no intertextual reference can be transferred into another language on the strength of its informational purport alone. In fact, intentionality normally outranks information content as it is the basis of the general semiotic description of a given reference. After all, what actually gets transferred is a sign that has brought with it across semiotic boundaries its entire discursive history, including new sign values which it has gathered on the way.

Haddad (1995: 264) endorses Hatim and Mason's approach to the translation of intertextual signs, in which as it has been seen above, priority is given to the semiotic status:

> I have arrived at the conclusion that the pragma-semiotic model is the best to address translation problems in general and the problems encountered since it studies text in context taking into consideration the three dimensions (register, pragmatics and semiotics) and since it hence advocates the kind of translation which deals with signs and which endeavours to preserve their pragmatic as well as semiotic aspects.

She thus rejects all the other translation approaches such as the literal vs. free approach, the formal vs. dynamic equivalence approach, the register approach and the pragmatic approach. The literal vs. free and the formal vs. dynamic approaches are rejected because they deal with text out of context. The register approach alone is not adopted because it focuses on the communicative dimension of context (field, tenor and mode) and disregards the other contextual dimensions, namely, pragmatics and semiotics. Finally, the pragmatic approach alone is ruled out because it does not take into account the communicative and semiotic dimensions of context.

3.2.2.4.4 Text structure and texture as elements of discourse: the contrastive discourse model

In this section, two elements of discourse, namely text structure and texture, will be considered in their relation to text context. (See also section 3. 2. 2. 3. 5 above for another aspect of this relation; i.e., the relation between CC and text structure and the way the first influences the latter).

3.2.2.4.4.1 Text structure:

Text structure according to the contrastive discourse model proposed by Hatim and Mason (1990) refers to "the hierarchical principles of composition" (p: 165). In other words, a text is seen as being made up of a sequence of sentences which, taken together, "serve some overall rhetorical purpose", i.e. an overall intention (Ibid). This overall rhetorical purpose is not the result of the linear arrangement of text elements such as words, phrases, clauses… It is rather the outcome of the relations between the rhetorical functions which each one of these elements performs. It is these discourse relations which lead to the emergence of sequences of elements and that constitute a text having an overall rhetorical purpose.

A sequence is defined in this model as

> a unit of text organization which normally consists of more than one element and which serves a higher-order rhetorical function than that of the individual elements in question. (Hatim and Mason 1990: 174)

To give an example of the relationship between sequences and elements which obtain in a typically counter-argumentative text, the following figure adapted from Hatim and Mason (1990: 175) is given below:

Figure 3: The relationship between sequences and elements in a counter-argumentative text

Sequence I E1 general thesis
Thesis cited → E2 specific thesis
Sequence II E3 opposition
Opposition →
Sequence III E4 etc.
Substantiation →
(E = Element)

Perceiving the relationships between sequences is very crucial in discourse processing in general and for the translator in particular. As Hatim and Mason state:

> The translator's concern is of course to relay the rhetorical purpose of the producer of the source text. Perceiving the plan of composition of sequences and of entire texts is an essential part of the text. (1990: 176)

They also maintain that discourse relations "facilitate a retrieval of rhetorical purpose" (p: 181) and "are important not only as an aid to better comprehension in general but also in activities such as summarizing and reporting" (p: 185).

In Hatim and Mason's discourse model, there is a relationship between text structure (the compositional plan) and the text type. Thus, they state, following Hasan (1989), that

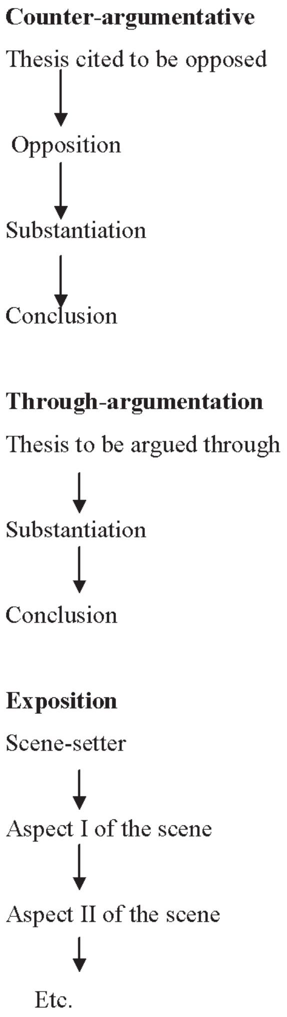
> the use of any given structure is motivated by the way that text users react to context. More specifically, users pursue a rhetorical purpose which becomes the focus of a particular text type… This focus reflects the way a given culture organizes textual material in terms of signs. We recognize these signs within familiar generic, discoursal and textual structures. The underlying principle of this whole process is intertextuality, our ability to recognise and produce texts as tokens of a type. (Hatim and Mason 1990: 169).

They also add that

> our awareness of text type… almost causally determines the compositional plan of a given text (i.e. its structure). Internalized as part of language users' textual competence are a set of structural configurations corresponding to a set of typological foci. (Hatim & Mason 1997: 7).

The basic structure designs of counter-argumentative, through-argumentative and expository texts are:

Figure 4: The basic structure designs of counter-argumentative, through-argumentative and expository texts



(Hatim and Mason 1997: 7)

3.2.2.4.4.2 Texture

Texture refers to "the various devices (semantic, syntactic and textual) which together lend the text its basic quality of hanging together, of being both cohesive and coherent" (Baker 1992: 188). Alongside text structure, it is one of the most important elements in the identification of a text and a non-text (see section 3. 2. 2. 3. 5 above). For its realization, texture depends on the text structure and other aspects of context such as text type, genre and discourse; in other words, texture

> realizes given structure formats… and is more or less causally determined by higher-level contextual factors (text type and so on). (Hatim and Mason 1997: 7)

Texture is, thus, regarded as motivated choice on the part of text users in general; that is to say,

> text producers make their choices in such a way as best to serve their own communicative ends and within an institutional setting which exerts its own influence on linguistic expression. In this way, text type focus is a powerful motivating factor. A counter argument demands different textual procedures from those appropriate for conceptual exposition. (Hatim & Mason 1990: 193)

3.2.2.4.5 Text processing and creation in the contrastive discourse model

According to Abdul-Fettah Jabr (2001: 308), Hatim and Mason (1990) (1997) "seem to regard the translation process as one that is identical to that of text creation and processing" by language users in general. If this is so, then a comparison of the activity of these two actors (translators and language users in general) can only enhance our understanding of what is

involved in the translation operation. For this purpose, a comparison will follow in which both text processing and text creation will be looked at first from the perspective of language users in general and second from the perspective of translators.

I. Text processing by readers/hearers:

In his reading process, the reader starts with words, phrases and sentences (i.e. the lexico-grammar) in order to get to (i.e. re-create) the intended meaning of the text. In this respect, the three dimensions of context are brought to bear on the processing operation. Thus, the register membership of a text is identified through an analysis of field, tenor and mode (a communicative dimension), its global intention is inferred (a pragmatic dimension) and finally, its status as an instance of a genre, of a particular discourse and of a certain text type (a semiotic dimension) is recognised. In this "sense-making" effort, a two-way reading process is involved, namely, top-down reading and bottom-up reading.

Concerning the top-down reading process, the reader feeds his own assumptions into the text. These assumptions are derived from his or her knowledge of the world. As for the bottom-up process, the reader analyzes the text elements in terms of their lexical meanings (5) and relates them to one another using the rules of syntax. This leads to the "building-up of composite meaning as reading proceeds" (Hatim and Mason 1990: 226). The two reading processes are said to take place simultaneously, that is there is an interaction between them; the one informs and is being informed by the other (Ibid).

II. Text processing by the translator

Unlike the ordinary reader, the translator has to process the text much more thoroughly in order to get to the intended meaning. In this context, Hatim and Mason state that

> whereas most readers are content to follow the thread of discourse as it proceeds, translators are constantly aware of the need to reconstruct the entire text from the individual fragments. Then, and only then, are translators in a position to mediate between ST and TT reader. (1990: 226)

Moreover, the translator's processing of discourse in the contrastive discourse model differs from that of previous translators in that it uses top-down and bottom-up processes simultaneously; whereas former models used contextual factors only after identifying problems at the bottom level. Concerning this point, Hatim and Mason state:

> While not losing sight of the micro-analysis which is constantly going on in the translator's mind, we shall trace the path from context, through structure to texture in order to bring out the communicative, pragmatic and semiotic values which influence translators' decisions… (1990: 227)

III. Text creation by writers/speakers:

During the creation process, the writer/speaker selects those lexico-grammatical elements which express his intended meaning; this could be to narrate, to argue, to describe or just to present information. Building on this, texture and structure are added, taking into account the communicative and the semiotic dimensions.

IV. Target text creation:

Likewise, the translator selects those lexico-grammatical elements which allow for the expression of the overall intended meaning or rhetorical purpose of the ST. This involves establishing register equivalence (finding the appropriate equivalent vocabulary for a particular field, and using the right tenor and mode in the TL). The process also involves choosing the appropriate text structure that will reflect the overall rhetorical purpose (such as thesis cited to be opposed, opposition, substantiation and conclusion for the counter argumentative global intention). In addition to this, the translator has to string words, phrases and sentences together to form sequences, making use of cohesion, coherence and thematic patterns. These devices constitute the textual features and are themselves influenced by the text structure and other higher level contextual features. While he is engaged in the process of text creation through mediation (or intersemiotic process), the translator

> has to mediate between cultures, seeking to overcome their incompatibilities (ideologies, moral systems and socio-political structures) (Ibid: 224).

This is due to the fact that generic and discoursal traditions are not the same for source and target languages. At the same time, the translator has to make sure that the ST is rendered “untainted by his own vision of reality” (Ibid).

The last stage in the translator’s text creation is to execute a set of final adjustments which take account of the text receivers’ expectations (Ibid).

To sum up, text processing and creation as performed by language users in general and translators in particular can be represented as follows:

	Language Users	Translators
Text Processing (reading/hearing)	Lexico-grammar ↓ Entire rhetorical Purpose	Lexico-grammar (ST) ↓ Entire rh. purpose(ST)
Text creation (writing/speaking)	Entire rhet. purpose ↓ Lexico-grammar	Entire rh. purpose(ST) ↓ Lexico-grammar (TT)

Table 1: Text processing and creation as performed by language users and translators (adapted from Hatim and Mason 1990)

CHAPTER IV

DIDACTICS OF TRANSLATION

The advance of knowledge in the disciplines which are adjacent to translation studies, especially linguistics, socio-linguistics, semiotics and pragmatics, along with insights from language studies (applied linguistics) in the second half of the twentieth century have forced many translation theorists and practitioners to rethink their ways of teaching translation. This has been all the more necessary due to the rising demand for trained translators in a world where communicating for various purposes has become a more urgent need and a more vital issue than ever before.

Ever since the 1970s, many voices have risen in defence of a more rational and systematic way of teaching translation, while at the same time criticising the old and archaic methods of the past. Among these voices, one finds Pan (1977), Reiss (1976), Chau (1984), Kussmaul (1995) and others. Thus Pan (1977: 51) quoted in Chau (1984: 16) states that

> translation training in the past has not demonstrated sufficient purpose, planning and objectivity. It was left to individual genius, hard work and self - taught technique.

Similarly, Reiss (1976: 329-30) maintains that there is “still no systematic method of teaching translation” despite the fact that “translation has been practised for thousands of years and despite the existence of schools of translation both at present and during the middle ages in Baghdad and Toledo.”

Likewise, Kussmaul (1995: 1-2) writes:

> There seems to be a growing awareness all over the world that we need methods for training translators, and that these methods should be concerned with the actual process of translation... It is now felt that the training of translators should be institutionalized and given a sound methodological basis.

4.1 Translator competence and translator training

Understanding the constituents and nature of translation competence is of immediate relevance to translation training since the concept enables us to identify the areas where the intervention of the translation instructor is most needed. A number of translation scholars have addressed this issue and reached several interesting and at times conflicting conclusions. To begin with, House (1980) quoted by Kiraly (1995) maintains that translation competence is a fifth basic foreign language skill in addition to reading, writing, speaking and listening. Wilss (1982), in a more elaborate description of the constituents of translation competence, argues that it is the fusion of SL receptive competence, TL reproductive competence and a super competence consisting in the ability to render a SL text into a TL text. Of special significance here is Wilss's argument that the 'super competence' is intertexual and not interlingual. That is to say, being truly bilingual or fluent in a foreign language is no guarantee that the translation will be a successful one; on top of all this, one has to be conversant with the discourses of the SL and TL (Kiraly 1995: 14).

The constituents of translation competence aside, the true nature of translation competence has remained a controversial subject, dividing the field into two main groups of translation scholars: those who advocate an innate view of translation competence and those who support a non-innate view. The first group (1) believes that the ability to translate emerges the moment the process of second language learning is started. Hence, they claim, there is "no essential difference between the translation behaviour of professional translators, translation trainees and second-language learners" (Ibid: 15). The role of translation training here, it is maintained, consists in intervening "in the natural evolution of translation competence in the increasingly bilingual individual" (Ibid).

As for the second group (2), translation competence involves "the ability to decompose texts according to text types, the ability to identify a hierarchy of the relevancy of features of different types, the ability to transfer fully and efficiently those relevant features, in order of their relevancy, and finally the ability to recompose the text around the transferred features" (Toury 1974: 88). Hence, second language learners cannot translate because, as Hönig (1988 a) maintains, they are firstly unaware of the situational factors necessary in any translation; secondly, they do not know the strategies that are required to carry out a translation; and, finally, they lack frames of reference for evaluating the adequacy or quality of their translation.

For Kiraly (1995: 16), translation pedagogy should focus on translator competence, i.e. on "the specialized skills of the professional translator", and not on translation competence per se. The term translator competence according to him "allows us to distinguish between the more general types of native and foreign language communication that the translator shares with bilinguals and the translation skills that are specific to professional translation and which most bilinguals do not normally develop naturally".

Pym (1992: 281) gives a fuller description of the skills which are specific to the professional translator and which have little to do with linguistic competence. He, thus, states that translation competence may minimally be defined as the union of two skills:

- The ability to generate a target-text series of more than one viable term (target text 1, target text 2 ... target text n) for a source text.
- The ability to select only one target text from this series, quickly and with justified confidence, and to propose this target text as a replacement of a source text for a specified purpose and reader.

Relating this definition of translational competence to translation pedagogy, Pym maintains that since translating is "a process of generation and selection between alternative texts", then, "this is presumably what should be taught in the translation class". However, as he notes with much surprise, "this is not what is usually taught in language class" (Ibid: 281). More specifically, and with regard to translation errors, Pym argues that translational competence enables one "to define a translation error as a manifestation of a defect in any of the factors entering into the above skills" (Ibid). He further adds

> Whatever the nature and provenance of translation errors, my working definition of translational competence implies that they should all have the same basic form: they should all involve selection from a potential target-text series of more than one viable term. This is what I want to call the non-binarism of translational errors. A binary error opposes a wrong answer to the right answer; non-binarism requires that the target actually selected be opposed to at least one further text 2 which could also have been selected, and then to possible wrong answers. For binarism, there is only right and wrong; for non-binarism, there are at least two right answers and then the wrong ones. (Ibid: 282)

4.2 Translation teaching in relation to foreign language studies

According to Kiraly (1995: 20), since translation skills are related to language skills, translation instruction stands to benefit a lot from the insights of foreign language learning and teaching. Among the methods (3) which have been adopted in foreign language teaching methodology, one can cite: the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method and the Communicative Method (4). However, of all these methods it is the Communicative Method, more specifically the communicative notions of language function and communicative competence, which has proved to be the most relevant to translation teaching. With regard to the second notion ‘communicative competence’, Kiraly, referring to House (1980), states that

> translation is ultimately a professional and an academic exercise. Students should acquire translation skills whenever possible by using them in situations that simulate real translation contexts. Translators’ communicative competence is not just knowing about translation as an ideal set of correspondences or even about how to use translation to communicate interlingually. (Ibid: 34)

4.3 Formal academic training

The last few decades have seen an increase in schools and university departments which teach translation. However, there are still conflicting views between those who support the formal academic training of translators and those who do not see the need for such training. The latter group argues that “translators are born not made”. In other words, translators are artists whose art cannot be formalized and taught in classes; in fact it is often said that it would “take a poet to translate a poet” (Nida 1979: 214). In this regard, Baker (1992: 2) tells us that she has:

> met professional translators who actually argue against formal academic training because, they suggest, translation is an art which requires aptitude, practice and general knowledge – nothing more. The ability to translate is a gift, they say: you either have it or you do not, and theory is therefore irrelevant to the work of the translator.

Moreover, the supporters of this view maintain that in addition to being an art, translation is a skill which is acquired through “repeated practice under supervision, familiarizing oneself with the working environment and rules and widening one’s horizon in life” (Chua 1984: 35). Hence, formal academic training, they say, cannot be profitably conducted in an academic context where the emphasis is laid on academic subjects and not on applied techniques (Longley 1978: 46 in Chau 1984: 36).

The proponents of the first view, i.e. those in favour of formal academic training, argue that the main goal of translation teaching is "to guide students to understand the principles of good translating and to appreciate the hard work involved" and "not actually to teach them how to translate" (Ibid: 32). Taking up this idea, Baker (1992: 1) draws a distinction between two main types of training, namely, vocational training and theoretical training:

> There are two main types of training that a profession can provide for its members: vocational training and academic training. Vocational courses provide training in practical skills but do not include a strong theoretical component. A good example would be a course in plumbing or typing... Like vocational courses, most academic courses set out to teach students how to do a particular job such as curing certain types of illness, building bridges, or writing computer programs. But they do more than that: an academic course always includes a strong theoretical component. The value of this theoretical component is that it encourages students to reflect on what they do, how they do it, and why they do it in one way rather than another.

Baker also suggests that theoretical training is most beneficial to the student because it enables him or her to deal with the unpredictable, acquire self-confidence, and keep abreast of the latest developments in the field, ultimately making his or her own contribution (Ibid: 2).

Gabrian (1986:54), cited by Kiraly (1995: 9), stresses the importance of formal academic training by drawing a distinction between learning at school and at university; she says:

> Universities are unlike schools in that it is not their task to spoonfeed knowledge to students to be memorized (but not digested) and regurgitated for exams. Rather, the main task of universities is to encourage students to think and act responsibly and independently.

Similarly, Kussmaul (1995: 1) distinguishes between factual training and procedural training. Thus, he states:

> Factual knowledge, i.e. knowledge of special fields, special terminology and foreign languages, is undoubtedly an essential requirement for translators. But it is not enough... translators must know how to translate.

Another point raised by the supporters of formal academic training concerns the element of time. Formal academic training, it is argued, allows trainees to learn the basic principles of translating within a few years instead of having to wait ages before reaching the required standard. As Launa Castellano claims:

> Our profession is based on knowledge and experience. It has the longest apprenticeship of any profession. Not until thirty do you start to be useful as a translator, not until fifty do you start to be in your prime. (Launa Castellano, 1988: 133 in Baker 1992: 3)

Along similar lines, it is argued that formal academic training is the only way to achieve the recognition which the translating profession deserves. Concerning this point, Baker states:

> There is no doubt that the low status accorded to translation as a profession is "unjust", but one has to admit that this is not just the fault of the general public. The translating community itself is guilty of underestimating not so much the value as the complexity of the translation process and hence the need for formal professional training in the field. (Ibid: 2)

In conclusion, it is perhaps safe to assume that formal academic training is not something we can afford to discard. As Chau maintains, translation teaching would be "woefully lacking in vision" if the theoretical principles were not taken into account. (Chau 1984: 38)

4.4 Defining the scope of translation teaching

In Chapter 2, section 2. 2 above, "translation studies" was said to encompass two branches, namely, pure translation studies (subdivided into descriptive translation studies and theoretical translation studies) and applied translation studies.

Within applied translation studies, the main concern is with the teaching of translation. Chau (1984: 22 – 26) makes a useful distinction between translation teaching and translation pedagogy. Translation teaching - or translating teaching - refers to "the training of translators... in an institutionalized setting according to a pre-designed curriculum" (Ibid: 18). In this definition, the teaching of translation as a means to an end, that is as a technique for teaching foreign languages, is excluded. As for translation pedagogy, this is defined from two perspectives, a theoretical one and a practical one. Concerning the former perspective, translation pedagogy is defined as the "theoretical study of translation teaching (Ibid: 23). With regard to the second, practical perspective, Chau states that

In actual practice, translation pedagogy can be divided into the following discrete but closely related tasks:

a) curriculum planning on various levels: “universal” (non-language specific), national, programme and class.
b) compilation of books, or handbooks, etc. and the collection of pedagogic material relevant to translation teaching.
c) course teaching, including classroom activities such as lectures, seminars, discussions, correction of exercises, and extra - classroom activities such as the supervision of students during their traineeship in a translation organization.
d) selection of candidates for translation teaching, and testing the students at various levels of the programme.

The concept of translation pedagogy, thus, subsumes that of translation teaching.

In this book, the main concern will be with the theoretical study of translation teaching as well as two major tasks of translation pedagogy, namely, course teaching and curriculum planning.

4.5 An overview of translation pedagogy in the second half of the twentieth century

4.5.1 From 1940s to 1980s

Systematic studies in translation teaching are a recent phenomenon. This fact is demonstrated by the survey of writings on the topic conducted by Chau, in which a total of 521 works on the subject are examined. These works belong to the period extending from 1941 to 1983 and are representative of the literature covering English and French-speaking areas where translation is taught. They include writings on translator and interpreter training and translation teaching as a technique in foreign language learning (i.e. translation as a means to an end). According to Chau,

> an analysis of the nature of the writings reveals an encouraging picture. There is an obvious general trend of change from random insights to perceptive theorizing, from the description of immediate individual programmes to formulations of model curricula, and from the exposition of personal convictions on individual problems to studies into the entire business of translation teaching, with reference to various branches of linguistics and adjacent disciplines. (Chau 1984: 28)

The “perceptive theorizing” and the “formulation of model curricula”, according to Chau, can be traced to the period of the 1970s which was marked by the work of Reiss (1976 b) Pan (1977), Wilss (1977), Keiser (1978) and Fawcett (1981).

4.5.1.1 The contents of the literature

According to Chau, the contents of the literature in this period (1941 to 1983) fall into five main areas: recurrent themes, curriculum content, teaching methods, description of existing courses and bibliographies of translation teaching. In this overview, attention will be directed to the first three areas mentioned.

4.5.1.2 Recurring themes

Among the most frequently recurrent themes in these writings, Chau mentions the following: the validity of the institutionalization of translator training (i.e. formal training), the validity of teaching translation at the university level (i.e. academic training), curriculum planning in relation to the requirements of translation trainees, the educational level at which translation teaching should be introduced, the degree of competence in the source language and in the target language, the direction of the translation, and the requirements of translation teachers (i.e. qualities and qualifications).

4.5.1.3 The curricula

4.5.1.3.1 The content of the curricula

Chau focuses on the content and the sequencing of the curricula in this period. Not all these curricula were uniform as to what to incorporate as content; there were always differences as to whether or not to include language training and linguistic training and whether to exclude translation theory. Moreover, the degree of specialization was also a hotly debated issue: should translation teaching aim for general or specialized training? (See section 4. 5. 1. 4 below, where Chau provides a systematic analysis of the contents of translation curricula in this period; in this analysis, he classifies the contents into three major areas or approaches to curriculum planning, namely, a grammatical, a cultural and an interpretive. Each one of these approaches is subdivided into two further sub-approaches (5)).

With regard to the inclusion of language training, while some translation educators have supported its incorporation on the grounds that it is an essential part of translation teaching as it enables students to be on their guard as far as mother tongue interferences are concerned, others have rejected it, arguing that a translation course should not be converted into a language one.

As for the use of linguistics in translation teaching, some have argued against it (for instance, Marianne Lederer (1994) and Aleksander Shveitser (1987)) because, in their minds, students should spend their time learning how to use the languages and not just receive information about them. Those who have advocated its use (such as Mona Baker (1992: 4), Peter Fawcett (1997 in his foreword)), on the other hand, have maintained that linguistic training would be most beneficial to translation trainees as it would raise their awareness and sharpen their perception of the structural similarities and differences between the languages with which they are working. The training would furthermore introduce them to the field of linguistic variation, which is a vital area of knowledge for any prospective translator. In addition to this, it is said that linguistic insights would provide translator trainees with the necessary theoretical background with which they can decide on the most suitable rendering as well as justify their translation work.

With respect to the inclusion of translation theory within the curriculum, there were once again conflicting views. There were those who thought that translation theory would bring very little to the solution of practical problems. On the other hand, there were those, such as Mason (1982 a), Keiser (1969) and Wilss (1977) who vigorously defended the introduction of translation theory in the curriculum. Thus, for Keiser, "the theory of translation is an important part of the syllabus" (Chau 1984: 62). Similarly, Wilss argues that "the translation theory course serves to help the students to think about translating analytically" (Ibid). More importantly, Mason states that translation theory is not so much important for students when dealing with words and phrases as when they are confronted with "actual texts":

> When theory stops short at the word-group level (as is the case of contrastive linguistics, for example), the student may fail to link it with practice. Only by applying it to actual texts can insights at abstract level be seen as relevant. (Mason 1982a cited by Chau 1984: 61)

Before proceeding to the sequencing of elements within the curriculum as reported by Chau, it seems necessary at this point to try to clarify the notion "translation theory" by placing it within its context and examining its ingredients. For this purpose, one has to recall the disciplinary map of translation studies put forward by Holmes (1972); (see Ch. 2, section 2. 2 above). Holmes divides translation studies into pure translation studies and applied translation studies. Pure translation studies are in their turn subdivided into theoretical translation studies and descriptive translation studies. This subdivision of pure translation studies is, according to Holmes, dictated by the fact that translation is an empirical discipline which, like any other empirical discipline, has two aims:

a. describing particular translation phenomena
b. establishing general principles which can explain and predict the occurrence of these phenomena.

Now since translation phenomena are so numerous and varied (product-oriented, function-oriented and process-oriented), it follows that translation theory as a general and all-inclusive concept is somewhat misleading. It would perhaps be better, following Holmes, to use the concept of partial translation theories and to make it clear to students from the beginning what this means. Holmes, as reported in Chapter 1, classifies the partial translation theories into six main groups. However, one has to take into account the cautionary statement that he makes concerning the substitution of a "truly general theory" by a set of partial theories:

> "It would be wise, though, not to lose sight of such a truly general theory, and wiser still not to succumb to the delusion that a body of restricted theories... can be an adequate substitute for it." (Holmes 1972 in Venuti 2000: 181)

In a similar attempt to make more explicit the concept of translation theory, W. Koller (1978: 69-72), cited in Chau (1984: 67), divides translation theory into three domains which have to be taught separately. These are:

1. General translation theory: models of translation, translatability, strategies and techniques, textlinguistics, etc.
2. Specific translation theory: the application of the results of general theory to specific language pairs and texts.
3. Applied translation theory: preparation of textbooks and handbooks, etc.

For his part, Rune Ingo (1991: 49) maintains that there are four fundamental aspects to translation theory and that different theories of translation have been suggested, each one stressing a particular aspect. These four fundamental aspects of translation theory are:

1. Grammatical structure
2. Linguistic variety (esp. style)
3. Semantics
4. Pragmatics

These aspects, according to Ingo, are derived from a division of the linguistic sign into form and content, with form referring to aspects 1 and 2 above and content to 3 and 4. When translating, one thus relates the form and content of the SL to the form and content in the TL. In this regard, Ingo argues:

> I am convinced that there are few texts that allow anyone of these four aspects to be completely disregarded: they are more or less relevant to all texts although their relative importance may vary from one text to another. (Ibid: 50)

He further adds,

> When teaching the theoretical aspects of translation to students, I find it necessary to prepare them to search for good solutions to all these aspects in their own translations. The translated text must function pragmatically in its new cultural context, and it must generally also semantically convey the right information. Most texts should furthermore fulfill certain formal criteria. The style is not just an embellishment: it is the appropriate way of using the language in a given situation. And the linguistic varieties should, of course, be realized in a way that is in accordance with the general grammatical structure of the language in question. (Ibid: 55-56)

4.5.1.3.2 The sequencing of elements within the curriculum

Concerning the sequencing of elements within the curriculum, Chau (1984: 73) describes the work of Reiss (1976: 330 - 36) as being the most elaborate and systematic as far as syllabus design is concerned since it seeks to achieve three well-defined goals while using didactic principles which govern the sequencing of elements. These principles first move from the general to the particular (i.e. establishing competence before training in performance) and second, from the simple to the difficult. The three goals, which in fact represent three stages in the learning process and are put forward by general teaching theory, are: the preparation stage, the development stage and the independent application stage. In the first stage, the focus is laid on general linguistic training (introduction to lexical meaning and semantic fields, SL and TL receptive and reproductive stylistic training, introduction to general linguistics and comparative linguistics, introduction to textual science: textlinguistics). In the second stage, the main stress is on the development of translational competence which would subsequently allow the student to deal with a translation task more consciously and rationally by invoking the most suitable and efficient methods of translating. This stage will include dictionary use, introduction to contrastive grammar and comparative stylistics with reference to a particular language pair, introduction to psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and pragmatics and finally introduction to the history and theory of translation. In the third stage, the techniques of translation learnt in the second stage are practised using translation exercises of various sorts. The ultimate aim is to achieve "independent performance". The elements making up this stage are:

1. comparing translations
2. translation criticism
3. translation practice

Reiss maintains that after these three basic stages, another "development stage" concerning career-oriented training could be initiated. She also suggests that all along the period of training, there should be instruction in cultural studies and specialized subjects.

4.5.1.4 Teaching method

The teaching method is very closely linked to the curriculum content and the sequencing of this content. One may view method as the manner of execution or presentation of the curriculum content to students. Chau (1984: 75-82) gives a summary of the teaching methods used since 1920. The methods and activities cited include:

1. preliminary steps before translating proper
2. practical translating exercises and criticism of translated works
3. précis - writing
4. stylistic training (exercises in register)
5. cultural training

Concerning teaching methods before translating proper, Chau quotes Mason (1982 b: 175) and Toury (1980 b). For Mason, practical translating exercises have to be postponed until after a preparatory period has been completed. During this period, the student should be helped to develop a reading strategy, to learn how to evaluate a SL text and to get acquainted with certain translating techniques. Toury, on the other hand, suggests that the student should first be given the opportunity to read translations into the TL so as "to become aware of various translation norms".

With regard to practical translating exercises and translation evaluation, which are considered the most common activities in translation teaching, G. Rachinstey (1920) is noted for developing a translation syllabus which uses practical translating exercises and criticism of translated works. His syllabus consists of the following:

1. collective translating in class
2. collective criticism during which "comparative analysis of existing translated works" takes place in class
3. individual translating: assignment at home
4. individual criticism: assignment at home

The main pedagogical problem with these practical translation exercises concerns the choice of exercises, their gradation and establishing a relationship between them and the translation lessons (Gravier 1978: 203 – 4 quoted by Chau 1984: 75).

As for précis-writing, it is considered as a common activity in translation programmes. Its proponents stress its importance in forcing the student to "focus on ideas rather than words" (P. Russell 1981: 246). Précis-writing, in short, is thought of as a necessary activity in a translation programme. Regarding stylistic training (or exercises in register), this aims to train students to translate for different readers on different levels of formality. This type of training was proposed by Nida (1979: 215).

Finally, the cultural training methods proposed include componential analysis (Nida 1964), and role playing as a means to raise cultural awareness (Arjona: 1978).

For Chau, all these teaching methods and activities are important and worth using in a translation teaching programme. However, the problem is "how to link a particular teaching method to specific teaching objectives; i.e. when each should be employed and why". (Chau 1984: 82)

4.5.1.5 Translation models

According to Chau (Ibid: 119), the contents of all the translation curricula examined can be grouped under three main areas: grammatical, cultural and interpretive. The elements of these three areas are "mixed with varying degrees of emphasis" in these translation curricula. For Chau this classification into three areas is very useful pedagogically. He therefore gives a detailed description of the main characteristic features of each of these areas along with their theoretical background. He also assigns the term model, by which he means “a particular approach in curriculum planning”, to each one of these areas: Grammatical Model, Cultural Model and Interpretive Model.

Thus, for Chau, the Grammatical Model considers translating as a mere interlingual operation with an emphasis on langue rather than parole. In other words, translating boils down to a “mechanical substitution of lexicon and conversion of syntax” (Ibid: 122).

Concerning the Cultural Model, it is argued that it is not always possible to find TL equivalents for SL words since meaning is defined in terms of cultural fields and contexts. Meaning is therefore said to be dependent on the culture in which the language is used. Culture inevitably reflects the users’ attitudes, values, experiences and traditions. The Cultural Model, thus, focuses on intercultural contrasts (Ibid: 131-133).

As for the Interpretive Model, translating is regarded as an interpretive process in which all the communicative factors in a text have to be heeded in order to render the source text. This point is well emphasized by Beaugrande (1978: 13):

> Most translation studies are limited to a confrontation of the text alone, that is, without regard for how the texts were produced and how they affect readers. This procedure would no longer be valid... The focus of translation studies would be shifted away from the incidental incompatibilities among languages toward the systematic communication factors shared by languages. Only in light of this new focus can such issues as equivalence and translation evaluation be satisfactorily clarified.

It is perhaps worth noting that Chau attaches to each of these translation models two teaching methods which he describes as specific means of application of a particular model. Thus, the Grammatical Model is associated with the Traditional Grammar Method and the Formal Linguistic Method, the Cultural Model is associated with the Ethnographical-Semantic Method and the Dynamic Equivalence Method; finally, the Interpretive Model is associated with the Text Analysis Method and the Hermeneutic Method.

According to Chau, the Traditional Grammar Method is the product of a theory of language which was dominant from the mid-19th century to the mid-20th century and which advocated the idea of the universality of the human mind and the existence of a set of categories to classify the forms of language. This method is prescriptive and is based on the principles of contrastive grammar; it is also static, being concerned with the translation of *langue* rather than *parole*. However, Chau maintains that this method has a role to play in translation training and is also much in favour with translation students as it gives them a feeling of security (Chau 1984: 126).

In contrast, the Formal Linguistic Method is descriptive since “it defines classes and assigns rules” for languages not on the basis of subjective meaning, but rather on the basis of a structural analysis of the phonology, morphology and syntax of a language.

In the Ethnographical-Semantic Method, the emphasis is laid on intercultural contrasts. Thus, the SL civilization is introduced and contrasted with that of the target language. For Chau, “translation training, according to this method, is basically a cultivation of the awareness of cultural gaps” (colour, kinship terms ...) (Ibid: 136). This method has its origin in the ‘relativity’ view of the world theory which was first put forward by Humboldt and then espoused by Whorf and Sapir.

The Dynamic Equivalence Method, on the other hand, resorts to techniques which can reproduce in the TL reader the same response that was felt by the SL reader. Among these techniques, there is cultural transposition (i.e. replacing a cultural element by another in order to obtain a similar response). For Chau, the success of a translation in this method is measured in terms of the “similarity of response of the TLT reader and the original SLT receptor” (Ibid: 140).

The Text Analysis Method was the product of a new linguistic subdiscipline, namely textlinguistics. The latter can be defined as “the study of text as a communicative event rather than as a shapeless string of words and structures” (Baker 1992: 5). Thus, in textlinguistics, a text is considered as a communicative event involving a text producer, a specific audience and a specific context. The translator, as a reader, has to go through an interpretive process of the text context in order to identify the degree of formality, emotiveness... which he has to adopt when translating. In addition to this, he has to take into account the source text discourse (co-text) as a whole, i.e. as a unit of translation, and try to find its equivalent target discourse. This means that he should be aware of the principles governing the organization of discourse in both SL and TL. In contrast, the Hermeneutic Method does not attempt to reconstitute the meaning of a text by interpreting its context since a text, for this method, is not something that can be analyzed and described independently of the self; a text is considered here as a “co-subject”, an “intersubjective recreation”. The possibility of a unique interpretation of a text is thus rejected (Chau 1984: 148- 155).

4.5.2 From the 1980s to the end of the century

This overview of translation pedagogy from the 1980s to the end of the century covers the following geographical areas: Germany, France, Italy and the Arab world. Each geographical area will be investigated through the works of some translation scholars originating from that area.

4.5.2.1 In Germany

Kiraly (1995) and Klein-Braley (1996) are two German translation scholars who have tried to evaluate the translation pedagogy situation in this country. According to Kiraly, the translation teaching situation is still characterized by "a myopic and incomplete view of translation" and by "a pedagogical gap". Kiraly maintains that in many translation classrooms, translation is seen as a mere exercise in replacing words from a SL by TL words with the aim of testing students' knowledge of the comprehension, vocabulary and grammar of a TL. That is to say, the focus is laid on non-communicative translation activities (Kiraly 1995: 2).

As for the "pedagogical gap" in translation teaching, Kiraly argues that this is due to the absence of clear objectives, curriculum materials and teaching methods. More specifically, he states that

> the courses in translation skills instruction are usually not based on a coherent set of pedagogical principles derived from knowledge of clear objectives, the nature of translation competence and an understanding of the effects of classroom instruction on students' translation proficiency (Ibid: 6).

He also adds:

> This gap persists despite a limited but growing literature in the field of translator training; this literature has introduced new models of translation processes, proposals for curriculum planning and many insightful and practical suggestions on how to teach translation skills.

As an example of a predominant translation activity in Germany, Kiraly refers to the Performance Magistrale method in which the teacher just distributes a text chosen at random to his students. These have to translate it in turn sentence by sentence, an exercise which is usually followed by the teacher correcting the attempted translation and supplying the final correct solution. This method is frustrating to students first because it does not try to explain why "an inadequate" translation by a given student fails to meet the criteria of a "master copy", i.e. the correct translation, and secondly because the student is not systematically trained in “the complex and difficult art of translation” (House 1980: 7-8).

Summing up his evaluation of the pedagogical situation of translation in Germany at the time, Kiraly (Ibid: 18) diagnoses the following ailments which hamper the development of a systematic pedagogy of translation:

a. The lack of a systematic translation teaching method based on pedagogical and translation principles.
b. The non-use of research results in modern translation studies on the one hand and the non-use of the contributions of adjacent disciplines on the other hand.
c. A complete disregard for the social and cognitive aspects of translation and, in contrast, a total reliance on the interlingual aspect.
d. A teacher-centered teaching method (performance magistrale).
e. A failure to distinguish the constituents of translator competence from language-related competencies (bilingual competence).

For her part, Klein-Braley (1996) is critical of the way translation is also taught in Germany and other European countries. She quite clearly states that

> translation - whether into the foreign language or out of it - as it is taught at the moment in the majority of institutions in Germany and in other places in Europe, is potentially damaging since it inculcates approaches and techniques which hinder rather than help a person who needs translation skills of any kind as professional qualification. (Ibid: 17)

Among the main reasons for this situation, in Klein-Braley’s view, are the test procedures used in the final examinations in German institutions. These test procedures consist mainly of “the prose” technique and “the translation” technique. The “prose” format is defined as an examination technique which involves translating a text from the student’s native language into a foreign language. As for “the translation” format, this is defined as an examination technique involving relaying a foreign language text into that of the student’s native language.

The arguments for adopting “the prose” as a testing procedure are cited by Klein-Braley as follows:

- The “prose” teaches students to be accurate.
- It raises their literary awareness and sensitivity.

- It teaches them about language in general and their own in particular.
- It demonstrates the examinees' capability of writing in the foreign language.
- It enables examinees to compare different versions of the same text.
- It is short and easy to construct.

The arguments for using "the translation" as a testing procedure have to do with demonstrating students' ability to comprehend the foreign language and write a readable text in the native language.

Despite the supposed merits of these two testing procedures, Klein-Braley takes them to task for all the problems that beset translation teaching, particularly since, as she puts it, it is "the testing that drives the teaching" (Ibid: 18).

These two testing procedures "have a serious negative backwash effect on all language translating inside the university" (Ibid). The "prose", in particular, is singled out for criticism as it "seriously undermines any attempt to develop a truly communicative/ functional approach to language use at university level" (Ibid: 20). She therefore advocates its simple abolition:

> One of the most important tasks of the near future in Germany is to get rid of the "prose" as the only permissible test procedure (Ibid).

Coleman (1986), quoted by Klein-Braley (Ibid: 19), equally vehemently criticizes this testing procedure mainly because it "suits the needs of the teacher better than the learner". That is, the procedure does not necessitate any preparation time, nor does it require "high language competencies" by the teacher. Moreover, it does not follow a systematic approach because "only those things are discussed in the lesson which happen to occur in the teacher's selected texts" (Ibid). To remedy this prevailing translation teaching situation, Coleman proposes a change of focus "from preparation for the test to preparation for possible vocational use" (Ibid: 23). Thus, she suggests that the translation course curriculum should be designed in such a way as to enable students to be properly prepared to deal with real translation situations.

The curriculum design proposed and currently in use in the University of Duisburg where she teaches concerns a translation course running over four semesters for two hours a week:

I. The first semester is considered a basic course and covers "a variety of isolated but systematic aspects of translation" (Ibid: 24) such as:

a. The translation of different types of lexical items
b. The correct use of dictionaries
c. Studying contrastive phenomena
d. The translation of cultural items
e. The adaptation of texts for specific addressees
f. The evaluation of translation in both directions
g. Examination of translations of "interesting" texts such as the Bible, advertisements, poems, songs...

II. In the second and third semesters, students begin to practise translating texts which they are likely to meet in real life:

> students should be confronted with authentic translation tasks. I call this the pounds / dollars/ deutschmarks criterion. Would someone be prepared to pay to have the text we are about to work on translated? If the answer is no, then the text is not a genuine translation job. (Ibid: 24)

A sample of what she describes as authentic texts includes, for instance, UHU glue package, extracts of the German railway timetable, tourist information brochures, non-fictional prose, a speech by a government member...

III. In the final semester of the course students work on translation projects dealing with a variety of tasks, such as a booklet about beer-brewing, the brochure for a local museum, the university brochure...

Having proposed this curriculum design, Klein-Braley warns against any attempt by university translation instructors to compete with translation schools:

> We cannot - and should not try - to compete with the schools of translation. We are not training translators and interpreters. Our aim must be to enable all-round language professionals to tackle translations themselves for in-house and informal purposes, and also to supervise the translation of texts for public and formal purposes... We can only offer the bare bones and techniques. (Ibid: 34)

4.5.2.2 In France

For Françoise Grellet (1991) translation pedagogy in France has not evolved throughout the centuries. Moreover, it is an activity which is not given the importance and time that it should normally get:

> Lorsqu'on considère la situation actuelle de la traduction dans l'enseignement des langues en France, force est de reconnaître que c'est

> une pédagogie qui n'a guère évolué au cours des siècles et qui, à tous les niveaux de la 6^{ème} à l'université, peut fréquemment se résumer par les mots «lisez-traduisez ». Une activité qui dans les classes de secondaire, est souvent faite en fin de cours, rapidement, presque honteusement (Grellet 1991: 11). (See the translation of this quotation on page 141, note 6)

This state of affairs, according to Grellet, can be ascribed to some widespread ideas in the minds of many teachers for whom translation is thought to be a gift and is considered to have no role to play in a pedagogy that strives to be communicative. To remedy this situation, Grellet suggests that one has to use more authentic translation activities which simulate the work of a professional translator. She also proposes that translation instruction be varied and well-structured. On this point, she states:

> Si nous demandons souvent à nos étudiants de traduire, nous les entraînons rarement à cette activité de façon systématique. Les problèmes traités sont la plupart du temps ceux que l'on rencontre au hasard des textes, et la progression lorsqu'elle existe, correspond le plus souvent à la difficulté globale des passages à traduire. (Ibid: 13) (See the translation on page 141, note 7)

Finally, Grellet makes the point that the translation approach has to be communicative, encouraging group activities. These would enable students to reflect better on the translating operation and its problems (Ibid).

4.5.2.3 In Italy

Italian academic and translation teacher Gabriella Mauriello in Italy maintains that translation teaching has a tendency to adopt a practical approach:

> you take a text and deal with whatever translation problems arise from this particular text, in whatever order they come. (Mauriello 1992: 64)

Mauriello also states that "there is plenty of good literature on the theory of translation, but very little on the practice of translation and how to teach it" (Ibid: 63). Students in her view should learn a "savoir faire" in addition to a "savoir"; in other words, "they should be told the ways, (i.e. the road map) to follow" to achieve a good translation (Ibid).

In Mauriello's school of translation, the teaching follows a linguistic progression and is largely based on the textlinguistic approach. The whole text is taken as the translation unit, but the emphasis is placed on different linguistic aspects along the period of instruction in the following manner:

- First year: syntactic structures
- Second year: semantic aspects
- Third year: style, language for special purposes, and terminology.

The texts are selected from authentic materials, provided that they reflect this progression and that they represent the different text types: expository, argumentative and instructional.

Concerning the translation process and its relation to translation teaching, Mauriello draws attention to the fact that this process involves two phases, a passive phase and an active phase, in addition to a phase in between, a “no-man’s land” where teachers can intervene to help students acquire some translation skills (Ibid: 66-67). In the first phase, the student reads the text until it “becomes imprinted on the mind and links up with the previous encyclopedic knowledge of the reader”. While engaged in this activity, he/she will get a feel of “the general rhythm of the text, its overall structure, its register, its level of language and its intended meaning (Ibid: 66). In the second phase, the active phase, the translator draws on the knowledge and insights he or she gathered from the first phase and puts into action his or her productive skills in the target language.

It is the phase in between that is particularly interesting. This is divided into two sub-phases, namely, analysis of the text, and terminology and documentation research. The analysis of the text is further subdivided into two steps: concept analysis and technical analysis. In concept analysis, the translator has to identify the following elements:

- the author’s thesis
- the logical units which indicate the overall structure of the text
- the key concept in the ST
- the author of the text
- the target reader
- the subject matter
- the function of the text
- the text type

Following this analysis, a translation strategy will be adopted. Concerning technical analysis, students are given guidance into how to identify and to solve some technical translation problems.

As for the second sub-phase, that is terminology and documentary research, students use their dictionaries to look up technical and common words without attempting to find the exact word. The latter, according to Mauriello, will fall naturally from the context when the translator gets involved in creating the target text.

4.5.2.4 In the Arab world

Concerning the translation teaching situation in the Arab world, one of the eminent Arab translation researchers who has tried to diagnose and evaluate the current state of affairs of translation pedagogy in this part of the world is Showqi Ali Bahumaid (1995).

Having investigated the translation courses given as part of the English language degree programmes in various Arab faculties, and having evaluated the various elements of the translation courses, such as course content, students, teachers, materials and teaching methods, Bahumaid reaches the conclusion that although translation is one of the major constituents of the undergraduate foreign language learning programmes in the Arab world, there are no systematic studies of this field. Furthermore, he notes that the various elements of the translation teaching operation exhibit a number of serious weaknesses. First, the students' level in both the native language and the foreign language is said to be unsatisfactory. This low standard is compounded with an "over-simplistic perception of translation" which is conceived of as just a transcodage operation (Ibid: 97). Second most teachers have received no training in translation teaching, and do not undertake translating in a consistent manner as freelance translators, for example. Third, the course contents present a number of drawbacks such as the lack of clear objectives with regard to the place of the translation course within the English undergraduate programme (i.e. should translation be taught as a means of language development or as an end in itself?), and with regard to the objectives of the translation teaching course itself (i.e. is the course intended to train students to become professional translators or just to acquaint them with translation techniques?).

Other drawbacks are said to relate to the structuring of the course itself and the neglect of the conceptual framework (the theoretical component) of translation studies in general and translation teaching in particular. Thus, a fourth shortcoming has to do with the scarcity of course materials such as textbooks, and even when these are available, they tend to be deficient in a number of ways such as the random selection and the limited scope of texts. Only a few grammatical and idiomatic problems are considered, whereas cultural and stylistic problems are almost entirely disregarded (Ibid: 100). Finally, the translation teaching method is said to follow the same routine steps; after the teacher has handed out a passage to students, the learners start to translate without the least practical guidelines from the teacher. Following this, the teacher gives his translation of the passage which is considered as a model version to be imitated. This teaching method, according to Bahumaid, is teacher-centered since it discourages students from engaging in any meaningful interaction either with the teacher or among themselves. Thus, no feedback or explanations are given by the teacher concerning students' errors.

Another description of the translation teaching situation in the Arab world with a focus on Morocco is given by Mohamed Mehrach, a professor of English-Arabic-English translation and text linguistics at the University of Tetouane. Mehrach states that although Moroccan students' translations into English are correct grammatically, they suffer from incoherence and source text interference. He argues that this "problem of rendering correct but incoherent versions is basically related to deficient teaching methods, lack of translation strategies and lack of relevant models" (Mehrach 2003: 5). This is due to the fact that the

> didactics of translation is an area in which Moroccan teachers of translation receive no specific training (Ibid).

With regard to translation evaluation, Mehrach further adds:

> We have observed that the method used by Moroccan university teachers of translation in *their assessment of their students' versions reinforces a grammar-oriented approach*. Teachers allow, under their supervision, a certain amount of time for individual corrections of errors... Unfortunately, the teachers' comments are often related to grammatical errors at the sentence level. The students focus on being grammatically correct in their translation. They must, for instance, pay attention to the use of articles, spelling, connectors, subject-verb agreement, and so on. Besides, the relevant linguistic unit for teachers in their assessment of the students' translations is either the individual word or at most the single sentence. *Consequently, the focus on minor grammatical errors obscures the student's ability to correct major errors, i.e. textual errors*. (Ibid)

4.6 Some current methodologies for the training of translators

The last two decades have seen the emergence of two main new approaches to the didactics of translation: process-oriented translation methods and textlinguistic-based methods. The first method advocates the need for a descriptive translation pedagogy; i.e. a pedagogy which draws its principles and techniques from an accurate description of translation processes. It also seeks to merge the psychology of translation (i.e. knowledge of the hidden cognitive processes of translation) with the pragmatics of translation. Kussmaul (1995) and Kiraly (1995) are among the proponents of this method. The second method adopts a text-in-context approach to translation training drawing on the insights of textlinguistics. Hatim and Mason (1990) and (1997) along with Baker (1992) are among the main proponents of this method. Thus, for Hatim and Mason (1997:180),

> Training programmes need to address the area of language use where text meets context and is thereby structured and made to hang together.

They also add:

> It is perhaps worth stating our view that, if translator training is limited to those superficial characteristics of text which are most typical of what the technical or administrative translator is likely to encounter most of the time (specialized terminology, formulaic text conventions and so on), then the trainee will be singularly ill-equipped to deal with, say, metaphor, allusion, implicature when they occur - as they do - in technical texts. (Ibid: viii)

One of the most important pedagogical issues on which Hatim and Mason's approach was brought to bear is curriculum design for the training of translators.

In this section, these two main approaches to the didactics of translation - the process and the textlinguistic - will be examined and assessed.

4.6.1 Process - oriented translation methods:

4.6.1.1 Kussmaul's approach

Kussmaul's approach (1995) is inspired mainly by the psycholinguistic models of comprehension, which emphasize such processes as top-down and bottom-up, and by textlinguistics, more specifically the pragmatic dimension of the translation process. The main question asked is what translators should in general, and trainees in particular, do when "smooth reading and reverbalization are blocked and translation problems arise?" (p.86). Before answering this question, Kussmaul paves the way by introducing two important aspects of translation activity and by illustrating their importance in guiding translators in their decision-making. The two aspects are the psychological aspect of translation and the pragmatic aspect.

4.6.1.1.2 The psychological aspect of translation

For Kussmaul, data-based research, which is fundamental in translation teaching as it enables one to locate, explain, and remedy students' problems, has focussed mainly on one type of data which is product-oriented. In this type of data, students' translations are collected and then an error analysis is undertaken following three steps: describing the errors (i.e. identifying the symptoms), finding the reasons for their occurrence (i.e. diagnosis) and finally, providing pedagogical help (i.e. remedy). This error analysis according to Kussmaul is not enough because it stops short from telling us how students produced these errors: it is not sufficient, for example, to tell students that they have made an interference error and then advise them to do something about it by following a course in the usage of their mother tongue or a remedial course in the foreign language or even to take up a course in text analysis for a better text comprehension. He, therefore, argues for the need to supplement this product-oriented research by one that is process-oriented, using Think-Aloud Protocols (TAPs).

Think-aloud protocols refer to a data-collection technique during which translation subjects are asked to verbalize their thoughts while translating. In the process, their verbalizations are recorded and then analyzed so as to find out what kinds of problems are encountered and what sorts of strategies are used.

This process-oriented data analysis, according to Kussmaul constitutes an improvement by degree when compared to the product-oriented data analysis because it brings us closer to the translator, despite the fact that, like the latter, the process-oriented data analysis remains basically speculative; one still has " to infer what goes on" in the translator's mind (Ibid: 7).

When analyzing the TAPs, Kussmaul looks at the errors and thus tries to trace the mental processes which have caused them, relying in this operation on psycholinguistic models of comprehension (e.g. the interplay between bottom-up and top-down processes). However, he also sometimes invokes another linguistic model, namely, Fillmore's scenes and frames, which, he says, is similar to the psycho-linguistic model mentioned except that it, at times, "helps us see things in greater detail" (Ibid: 13).

On the basis of the analysis of students' TAPs, Kussmaul has found that these do not only present information regarding mistranslation errors, such as interference and faulty-one-to-one correspondence (resulting from being unaware of polysemy), but also shed light on some deficiencies such as the misuse of bilingual dictionaries, the misuse of world knowledge and incomplete paraphrasing. These errors and deficiencies are attributed by Kussmaul to the implementation of unsuccessful mental processes, especially the predominance of top-down processes and the neglect of bottom-up processes. To remedy this imbalance between top-down and bottom-up processes, Kussmaul very strongly recommends that students should be made aware of the psycholinguistic processes of understanding in their minds so that they could rationalize their comprehension and translation processes. More specifically, they should be told that words in a text acquire meaning by virtue of their meaning potential on the one hand, and by virtue of the context which determines, limits and activates this meaning potential. Top-down knowledge, in other words, has to be counter-balanced by bottom-up knowledge (Ibid: 22).

4.6.1.1.3 The pragmatic dimension of language in Kussmaul's approach

Pragmatics, for Kussmaul, is the study of the relationships between utterance or text and its users, within a social and cultural context (p. 56). In this pragmatic dimension, there are three sub-divisions: a situational sub-dimension, a communicative function sub-dimension and a cultural sub-dimension. During the reading process, the top-down and bottom-up processes are said to combine with each of the sub-dimensions above.

1) The situational sub-dimension:

The situational sub-dimension, as it has been just mentioned, is based on the idea that non-linguistic situational factors are reflected in linguistic forms. These situational factors, according to Kussmaul, relate to the dimension of the language user (geographical origin, social class, time) and to the dimension of language use (medium, social role relationship, social attitude, province…). These are the two aspects of 'register analysis'.

Kussmaul cites the example of an utterance extracted from a passage to illustrate the significant role of the psycholinguistic reading processes in their relation to this sub-dimension. The utterance is "you bloody fool!" For Kussmaul, this utterance used in a particular context

> can be regarded as the bottom-up linguistic material, and the mental image of a situation such utterances evoke can be regarded as the top-down process… The experience which the speaker / hearer has of this phrase as

> a result of having encountered it previously in a range of different situations provides the top-down backcloth. (1995: 60)

2) The communicative function sub- dimension:

Here the reader or listener, according to Kussmaul, has to infer the writer's or speaker's intention from the illocutionary meaning of words and from the context in which the words are uttered. The words and the context constitute the bottom-up process and the text function constitutes the top-down process. For Kussmaul, the text function is the most important frame of reference:

> In text analysis, there is a hierarchy of steps or aspects; function is of the highest order. Once we have decided on the function, all other considerations fall into place, as it were. (1995: 63)

This view is endorsed by Hatim and Mason (1990) and (1997) since the reader's interpretation and the translator's decisions are to a great extent informed by text function. But to return to Kussmaul's model, he further states:

> The main thing asked of a translation is that it should fulfil the function chosen for it in the best possible way. All details concerning the translation of individual words ought to be subordinated to this end (Ibid: 103)

Concerning the function of a translation, Kussmaul refers to Reiss and Vermeer's (1984) stance on this point and thus concludes that the function of the translation is dictated by "considerations of the target readers' needs, interest, etc." Reiss and Vermeer (1984) have in fact boldly put forward the idea that a ST is nothing but an offer of information "Informationsangebot", and that it is up to the translator to select from it whatever will fulfil the needs and expectations of the target culture readers.

3) The cultural sub-dimension:

As previously mentioned, language users according to Kussmaul operate within a socio-cultural context. In addition to the social situation dimension examined above, the cultural background of a language is also said to be decisive in the appreciation of the meanings exchanged via words, phrases, utterances or passages. A word such as "dragon", for example, is perceived in Chinese culture as symbolizing "good luck", whereas it is perceived in a western culture as symbolizing "evil". Various methods for translating cultural meaning have been suggested. These include explaining, adapting, replacing or simply dropping the cultural reference. Nida, for example, adopts the replacement procedure which consists in substituting the source text culture specific concepts by target culture concepts in order to produce a translation which is dynamically equivalent (Ex: daily bread daily fish).

To sum up, Kussmaul draws attention to the importance of the cultural sub-dimension in informing the translator's decisions. With this regard, he states:

> We have to take text function and target culture into consideration. If we do not, our translation will not make sense and we may even run the danger of being misunderstood. (Ibid: 67)

When the psycholinguistic model of comprehension is added to the cultural sub-dimension, following Kussmaul's model, the words will then form the bottom-up process whereas the cultural meaning will form the top-down process.

Concerning Nida's concept of dynamic equivalence in which replacement is used as a procedure, Kussmaul makes an interesting link between this concept and the linguistic model of scenes and frames by Fillmore:

> Nida did not use the concept of scenes and frames which was developed much later. It could be applied here. One may say that although the linguistic frames are changed in the translation ("bread" becomes "fish"…) both "bread" and "fish" evoke the scene of "basic type of food". Nida's concept of dynamic equivalence may be defined within the scenes and frames model as difference of frames but similarity of scenes. (Ibid: 67)

4.6.1.1.4 Componential analysis in relation to the psycholinguistics and pragmatics of translation.

Returning to the question raised in section 4. 6. 1. 1 above, namely, what translators should do in case "smooth reading and reverbalization are blocked", Kussmaul maintains that combining the psycholinguistic model of comprehension and linguistic pragmatics with componential analysis is a highly productive procedure. In other words, after determining the function of a text, the resultant functional decisions should inform the translator about how to translate the meaning of words. According to Kussmaul,

> there can be a synthesis of these seemingly opposing categories if we do not restrict ourselves to one model of linguistic analysis. Componential

> analysis should be complemented by psycholinguistic approaches and by linguistic pragmatics. (Ibid: 87)

Kussmaul advocates the use of componential analysis, which involves decomposing the meaning of a word into its semantic features. This is because of the "strong influence of structural semantics on translation studies" and because "componential analysis is extremely valuable in providing a firm methodological basis for the solution of meaning problems" (p. 87). Structural semantics advocates that reality is not structured similarly in different language systems. Hence, the semantic features of the meaning of words in two different languages may not always completely coincide. That is, there may be a particular language for which the corresponding features in another language are lacking, leading to an overlapping situation. Given the importance of componential analysis in translation problem-solving, Kussmaul urges translation teachers to help students learn how "to unpack the meaning of words" as this would open their eyes to the fact that there cannot be always "equivalence at word level between two languages" (p. 93).

Thus, when faced with the translation of problematic words (i.e. words which are not known at all and whose meaning cannot be grasped from the context, or words which are known but unclear within a given context, or words which are used in an idiosyncratic way…), translators are advised by Kussmaul to pursue the following procedure:

1. They should decompose the word into its semantic features.
2. They should ask themselves: what is the function of the passage at hand and what are the relevant features of this word with respect to this function?
3. They should guard against trying to preserve all the features of the meaning of a SL word in their translation if it is not necessary to do so. Instead, they should use paraphrasing.

Regarding the issue of paraphrase, Kussmaul maintains:

> Now, for translators, and above all for students training to be translators, and even for some teachers of translation, there seems to exist an inviolable maxim which goes: try to preserve as many aspects / features, components of the meaning of a word as you possibly can. Translators seem to follow this maxim especially when they have to look up a word in a dictionary, and for the definition found in a monolingual dictionary they then try to find an optimally precise equivalent in the target language. Students, owing to their deficiencies in the foreign language very often find the above-mentioned maxim very attractive. (Ibid: 88)

He also suggests that in place of the above-mentioned maxim, a new maxim, which he calls “the maxim of the sufficient degree of precision”, could be adopted. This new maxim would incite translators to bring to the surface just those features of a word which are required in a particular context.

4.6.1.1.5 A summary of Kussmaul’s major translation pedagogy guidelines

The following points are stressed by Kussmaul in his process-oriented method for the training of translators:

1. Translation teachers should implement pragmatic analysis in their teaching so as to eradicate the misconception that students have about the translation activity – the latter being in the minds of many of them a mere replacement of SL words by TL words – and in order to produce “functioning translations” (Kussmaul 1995: 82).
2. They should also introduce students to text type conventions in the SL and TL and invite them to focus on the similarities and differences of these text types so as to produce adequate translations (Ibid).
3. They should help students build up self-confidence by making them aware of their cognitive processes. In other words, they should assist them in “rationalizing their comprehension and translation processes (Ibid: 92). This awareness is supposed to be a necessary condition for producing successful translations.

By applying the method put forward by Kussmaul, it is suggested teachers “should find it easier to argue for or against specific solutions when discussing semantic problems” with their students, who will themselves, subsequently, make use of these arguments in their professional life” (Ibid: 103)

4.6.1.2 Kiraly’s approach

Having covered Kussmaul’s pedagogic model, Kiraly’s approach (1995), which constitutes the second main process-oriented translation pedagogy method, will now be examined. Kiraly also defends the need for a translation pedagogy that is descriptive (based on a description of translation processes) while taking into account the pragmatic aspect of translating. For Shreve, p. XII in Kiraly 1995:

> Translation is both an observable social-communicative and a hidden cognitive activity. A great deal of what goes on in translation occurs hidden away; translation processes are not available for direct scrutiny. We have based much of our current translation pedagogy on incomplete, and in many cases incorrect understandings of translation. We desperately need to understand these hidden processes. (XII in Kiraly 1995)

Kiraly ascribes the problems which beset translation teaching to the existence of a "pedagogical gap" in translator education. He, thus, proposes a two-dimensional social and cognitive approach to translation activity and combines this with the results of a case study that uses Talk-Aloud Protocols (TAPs). His main purpose in all this is to develop "a model of translation processes to serve as a frame of reference for translation instruction."

4.6.1.2.1 The pedagogical gap

Kiraly has pointed to the existence of a pedagogical gap in translation teaching and has imputed this gap to the fact that translation courses are not based on sound pedagogical principles. More specifically, these courses are criticized for not having any clear objectives, not understanding the nature of translation competence, not understanding the effects of classroom instruction on students' translation proficiency (p. 6), not knowing what goes on in the mind of a person translating and not using communicative translation activities.

With regard to the last two points relating to the mental process and the use of communicative activities, Kiraly states, quoting Krings (1986: 6) that

> the tentative nature of most of the contributions to translation teaching thus far is the result of the virtual absence of knowledge about what goes on in the mind of a person translating, whether that person be a foreign language learner, professional translator or translator. (Kiraly 1995: 12)

He further adds, always quoting Krings (1986: 501), that

> the student's inadequate translational behaviour was found to be caused mainly by the exclusive use of non-communicative translation activities in foreign language classes. In these activities, the teacher assumes the role of both the client and the readership for a translation which has no communicative function and whose primary objective is the practice and testing of linguistic knowledge. (Kiraly 1995: 13)

In view of the fact that the processes taking place in language use "have already been observed from both a cognitive perspective (psycholinguistics), and a social perspective (sociolinguistics), Kiraly has reached the conclusion that, building on this body of available information, it is now "appropriate to consider both the cognitive and social aspects of translation processes" (p. 38). This, according to Kiraly, would shed some light on "the nature of translation processes and how they relate to translation practice, translation learning and translation teaching" (p. 38). In support of this new approach, Kiraly pursues a line of research based on the analysis of TAPs, a methodology which was introduced by Dechert and Sandrock (1984), Gerloff (1986), König (1987), Krings (1986) and Lörscher (1986). In connection with this, Krings maintains that the TAPs "are interpreted as indicators of strategy use which allow the researcher to draw inferences about underlying processes" (Krings 1986 in Kilary 1995: 46).

4.6.1.2.2 Kiraly's model of translation processes for translation teaching

Kiraly has attempted to give "a more global view" of translation processes for pedagogical purposes. This view encompasses the two main aspects of the translation activity, the social aspect and the cognitive aspect. These aspects have, until recently, been looked at separately from each other. Kiraly, thus, presents a merger (Kiraly 1995: 105 –106) of these two facets relying in this on British linguist J. R. Firth's social theoretical framework, (1951, 1957, 1964), Boekart's (1981) general model of language comprehension and production and evidence from empirical results obtained through TAPs.

4.6.1.2.2.1 The social aspect of the model

As mentioned previously, Firth adopted the notion of 'context of situation' which had been put forward by Malinowski, and which refers not only to the "verbal environment" but also to the "situation in which the text is uttered". However, Firth's main contribution was to refine this notion so as to make it more abstract, more general; i.e. capable of covering the maximum number of situational elements which are necessary for the comprehension and production of texts. We recall that Firth's features for the description of the context of situation are repeated below:

- the participants in the situation
- the action of the participants: what they are doing, including both their verbal and non-verbal action
- other relevant features of the situation: the surrounding objects

- the effects of the verbal action

Building on Firth's seminal ideas, Halliday introduced a set of contextual features, namely, field, tenor and mode. These constitute the elements of a model that is "most appropriate" for the description of the context of situation (Halliday 1989: 9).

With regard to the social aspect of his social model of translation, Kiraly has espoused Firth's view concerning the description of the context of situation (CS) and has applied it to translation activity. Thus, according to Kiraly, the translator is seen as "an active participant in three interrelated contexts of situation: the CS1 of the original text, the CS2 in which the translated text will be embedded and the CS3 in which the translator resides while translating." To illustrate this triple participation, the following adapted representation is suggested by Kiraly:

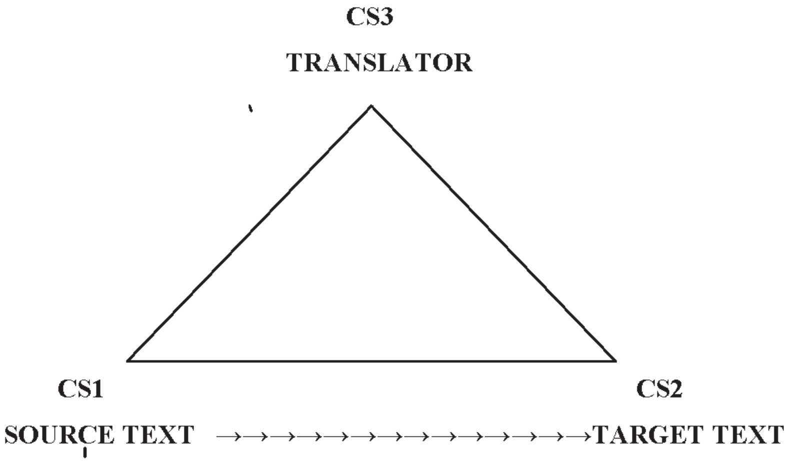


Figure 1: The participation of the translator in three contexts of situation

Within the CS3, the professional translator, according to Kiraly, is subjected to a wide range of variable constraints relating to "the norms of the society within which the translator is working, the employer's expectations concerning the form and function of the translation and the translator's own understanding of the function of the translation being produced (Ibid).

4.6.1.2.2.2 The cognitive aspect of the model

Cognitive activities refer to the mental processes involving accessing, analyzing and manipulating data during the comprehension and production phases of language (Kiraly 1995: 65).

Concerning the cognitive aspect of his model of translation processes, Kiraly uses Boekarts's (1981) general model of language comprehension and production which first proposes the existence of a subconscious workspace and a conscious processing unit in the mind of the language user and secondly identifies three types of understanding used in text comprehension, namely input-based (bottom-up), schema-based (top-down) and context-based.

Summarizing Boekarts's proposal about the comprehension process, Kiraly writes:

> linguistic input evokes relevant schemata to allow the language user to make inferences about intended meaning. The inferences evoke or trigger schemata stored in long-term memory and combine with them to form what Tannen (1979) described as an expectation structure. (Ibid: 65)

He further adds that

> comprehension in one's native tongue takes place primarily in the subconscious workplace, and it is only when problems arise in matching input to expectations that small amounts of information will be loaded into the conscious processing unit, where the language user can focus on the perceived problem and resolve it using comprehension strategies. (Ibid)

From this discussion of language comprehension and production processes, it is obvious that the subconscious is given special importance. This stems from the observation that in fact most of the cognitive processes are "subconscious and/or subcontrol" and that "the only cognitive activities available for observation are those that enter short-term memory and remain long enough to be verbalized" (Ericsson and Simon 1980, 1984).

Wilss (1988) and Hönig (1990) have also examined the role of subconscious processes (intuitive processes) in translation. Wilss distinguishes between intuitive and analytic thinking:

> Analytic thinking characteristically proceeds a step at a time. Steps are explicit and usually can be adequately reported by the thinker to another individual. Such thinking proceeds with relatively full awareness of the information and operations involved. It may involve careful and deductive reasoning, often using mathematics or logic and an explicit plan of attack.

> Or it may involve a step - by - step process of induction and experiment" (Wilss 1988, 133 in Kiraly 1995: 49)

As for intuitive thinking, it

> characteristically does not advance in careful well-defined steps. Indeed, it tends to involve maneuvres based seemingly on an implicit perception of the total problem. The thinker arrives at an answer, which may be right or wrong, with little awareness of the process by which he reached it. (Ibid)

Moreover, for Wilss, intuitive processes take place only after analytic processing fails to supply an adequate solution to a translation problem.

For Hönig (1990), on the other hand, intuitive processes do not come after analytic processing (or controlled cognitive processes). After observing translator trainees, it is concluded that

> it was strikingly clear in every case, that regardless of the solution that was finally reached, there was no systematic cognitive path that had led to it. Cognitive and intuitive factors alternate without any observable coordination and without evidence of a progression of mental steps. (Hönig 1990: 8-9 in Kiraly 1995: 49)

Commenting on the two different views on controlled and uncontrolled processes, Kiraly states that the implications of adopting one or the other are quite serious. Thus, if one follows the view of Wilss, an analytic approach to translation processing could be taken in which "one could then develop a model that identifies correlations between translation problems encountered, translation strategies implemented to solve these problems, and translation products yielded by the strategies" (Kiraly 1995: 49). If, on the other hand, one follows the view of Hönig, it would not be easy to defend a rule-based approach to translation (Ibid).

In his model of translation processes, Kiraly appears to favour the view of Hönig which also seems to have been adopted by Boekarts (1981) in his model of language comprehension and production. For Kiraly, intuitions, or uncontrolled mental processes are taken to include

> spontaneous associations between words and concepts; spontaneous determination of accuracy or equivalence where no conscious rule is invoked; and spontaneous determinations of acceptability (relative to the target community), also where no conscious rule is invoked. (Ibid)

4.6.1.2.2.3 The empirical basis of the model:

To construct a model of translation processes for translation teaching, Kiraly also draws on empirical results obtained through TAPs. One of the most important findings in this respect is the role played by the interaction between uncontrolled processes (intuitive processes) and controlled processes:

> The data analysis showed that only certain translation problems appeared to be a focus for controlled processing. Verbalizations revealed that conscious strategies were implemented only when subjects were unable to produce an acceptable translation solution for a source text unit through spontaneous associations or other unidentifiable uncontrolled processes. (Kiraly 1995: 97)

Accordingly, Kiraly concludes that

> translation practice (classes in which translation is done) should focus on developing the ability spontaneously to associate source and target language elements with a high degree of accuracy and on applying translation strategies to resolve problems that occur. (Ibid)

4.6.1.2.2.4 Presentation of Kiraly's model:

The model of translation processes suggested by Kiraly to serve as a frame of reference for translation teaching consists of the following components:

A. Information sources:

1) Long term memory (mental networks) containing knowledge of:
   - the physical world
   - SL and TL cultures
   - social schemata
   - discourse frames
   - translation-related schemata:
     - translation norms
     - learned strategies
     - quality assessment criteria
     - potential sources of error when translating
     - sets of assumptions about CS3
   - lexico-semantic knowledge
   - morpho-syntactic frames
   - SL / TL signs

2) Source text input:
   - morphemes
   - words

  - sentences
  - sentence groups
  - global textual profile

3) External sources:

B. An intuitive workspace:

The area where uncontrolled and subconscious processes take place.

C. A controlled processing centre:

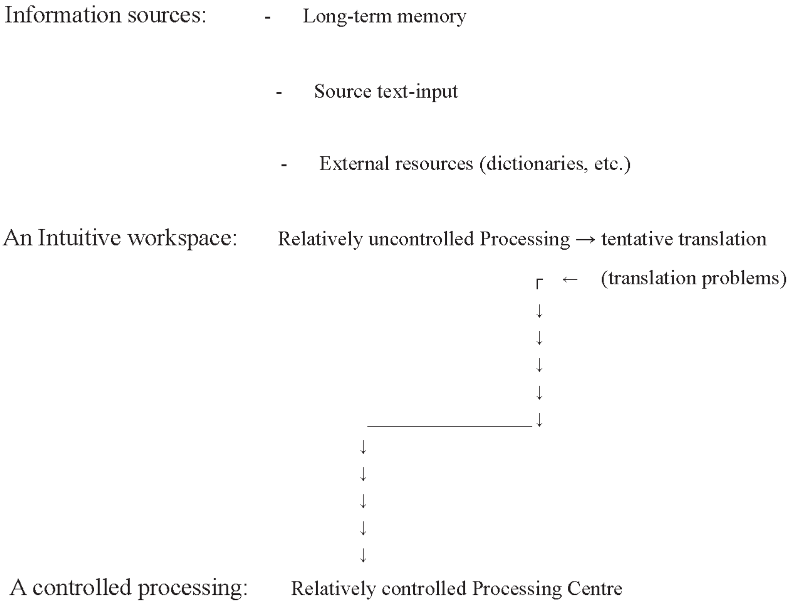
The controlled processing centre is the area where translation problems are processed consciously following the failure of the intuitive workspace to perform spontaneous associations.

Thus, according to Kiraly (1995: 100), a translation is the result of “the interaction of intuitive and controlled processes using linguistic and extralinguistic information”. More specifically, the intuitive workspace is first the site of combinations between long-term memory information on the one hand and source text input and external input on the other, leading to the emergence of two types of results: “tentative translation elements and translation problems”. The first are unmonitored products of spontaneous associations” which can either go through the controlled processing centre or simply “bypass” it. If they go through the controlled processing unit, then these tentative translations receive two types of monitoring: target language monitoring concerning “syntactic fit” and “semantic accuracy” and textual monitoring with regard to features of target text organization.

As for translation problems, which appear as a result of the failure of the intuitive workspace to produce tentative translation solutions, they are dealt with in the controlled processing centre and specific translation strategies are invoked to tackle these problems. However, if the strategy does not succeed in solving the translation problem, the latter, Kiraly suggests, may be “sent back to the intuitive workspace with information not previously taken into account (e.g. as the result of the subsequent application of a rereading strategy) (Kiraly 1995: 10). Finally, a tentative translation could be either accepted if the intuitive workspace does not again yield the right solution, or this tentative solution may be abandoned and a new attempt at finding the adequate solution is started.

The following representation is an adaptation of Kiraly’s model and its components:

Figure 2: Kiraly's Model of Translation Processes (adapted from Kiraly 1995)


Information sources:
- Long-term memory
- Source text-input
- External resources (dictionaries, etc.)
An Intuitive workspace:
Relatively uncontrolled Processing → tentative translation
(translation problems)
A controlled processing:
Relatively controlled Processing Centre

4.6.1.2.2.5 The relationship between the social aspect and cognitive aspect

In Kiraly's model of translation processes, the relationship between the social aspect and cognitive aspect is seen as an intersection between "the external context of situation and the translator's knowledge set: his knowledge of language, textuality, subject, culture, and social interaction" (Kiraly 1995: 58). In other words, it is the relationship between the source text input, involving the determination of the CS1, and long term memory. This relationship according to Kiraly is very important in translation activity:

> As several protocols have shown, the translator's apprehension of the CS1 appears to serve a framing and filtering function; components of the CS1 act as criteria conditioning the selection and knowledge of elements from long term memory and constraining translation processing in both the workspace and controlled processing center (Ibid: 106).

Moreover, this relationship, according to Kiraly, is not limited to this CS1 but rather extends to the CS2 and CS3, leading to the emergence of what he calls an "expectation structure":

> An expectation structure (a projection of what a translation should be like) derives from the translator's knowledge of translation (schemata) when it intersects with the multiple contexts of situation. The expectation structure is a master plan (or a set of constraints) for a translation in progress. (Ibid: 106)

To underline the importance of this, Kiraly draws attention to the fact that a pedagogy of translation has to address the question of how "cognitive processes articulate with the context of situation, that is to say, how the context of situation is processed and competencies of several kinds are brought to bear in text comprehension and production" (Ibid: 63).

4.6.1.2.2.6 The main pedagogical principles of Kiraly's model

Kiraly's model has shed some light on new areas of translation pedagogy which call for further research. He has particularly identified two major areas for pedagogical intervention, namely, the relationship between source text input and long-term input, and the relationship between uncontrolled and controlled processes. In addition to this, he has revealed some general principles which can contribute to "the building of a translation pedagogy". Of these general principles, three stand out as particularly important:

a. emphasizing spontaneous associations
b. enhancing students' awareness of their mental processes
c. developing a translator self-concept

Concerning the first principle (spontaneous associations), Kiraly stresses the fact that translation teaching should concentrate on helping students acquire interlingual, intercultural and intertextual associations since "most translation processing occurs in the intuitive workspace" (Ibid: 110). It is the task of the translation teacher, Kiraly maintains, to construct forms of teaching that involve spontaneous associations.

With regard to the second principle (enhancing students' awareness of their mental processes or raising their consciousness), Kiraly states that this should be a part and parcel of translation teaching as it would allow the students "to reflect on the strategies they actually use, recognize which ones work in particular situations, and evaluate those that seem to be less effective" (Ibid: 113). One way to raise students' consciousness of their psycholinguistic processes, according to Kiraly, is to use TAPs in translation classes. This means that students would listen to their recorded translation verbalizations and these would be evaluated by the teacher and by the students themselves as a group in terms of the various strategies used. Kiraly, however, does not mention the other important way for raising students' consciousness of their mental processes, namely the psycholinguistic processes of language comprehension, i.e. top-down vs. bottom-up, already referred to by Kussmaul above.

Developing a translator self-concept is the third general principle which Kiraly tackles. This principle refers to "a clearly defined sense of the translators' duties, what is expected of them when they begin translating" (Kiraly 1995: 113); it also involves instilling in the translators' minds the notion that "in becoming translators, they are becoming autonomous intercultural and interlingual mediators". (Ibid: 114)

To achieve this goal, Kiraly suggests that the first step is to introduce a course in translation studies, and the second is to break away with old translation teaching practices in which the performance magistrale is used as the main teaching technique.

Concerning the introduction of a course in translation studies, Kiraly suggests that such a course should cover the issues of contemporary translation theory such as culture and the translator, scenes and frames semantics, text analysis for translation purposes, the relationship between translation and linguistics, text typologies and the social aspect of a general model of translation processes, such as that proposed by Kiraly himself. By incorporating a course in translation studies, Kiraly maintains, students will realise "what it means to translate and to be a translator." (Ibid: 114)

With regard to old translation teaching practices, he argues that helping students acquire a translator self-concept will necessarily entail giving them "real and realistic professional translation tasks in the classroom". In other words, students "must be confronted with the task specifications and other constraints that real translators constantly deal with" and not be simply given "arbitrarily chosen" texts with a complete absence of task specifications.

(See note 8 for a summary statement of the similarities and differences between Kussmaul and Kiraly).

4.6.2 Textlinguistic translation methods

In their work, *The Translator As Communicator* (1997), Hatim and Mason address, from a textlinguistic angle, three important issues which are related to translation training; these are the nature of text-level errors, curriculum design based on a typology of texts and approaches to the issue of translator performance assessment. Of these three issues, their approach to curriculum design is by far the most important, given the purpose of the present book. The curriculum design proposed also constitutes a most innovative approach in that it deals with texts "in terms of an overall context-sensitive strategy":

> Approaching texts (as written or spoken records of verbal communication) in terms of an overall, context-sensitive strategy is, we believe, both durable and meaningful as a way of developing translation competence. (Hatim & Mason 1997: viii)

In this section, a review of Hatim and Mason's major contribution to the issue of curriculum design will be undertaken first because their contribution provides a good illustration of the possible applications of textlinguistics to translation teaching and secondly because of the insights and useful guidelines it presents to translation trainers and trainees alike.

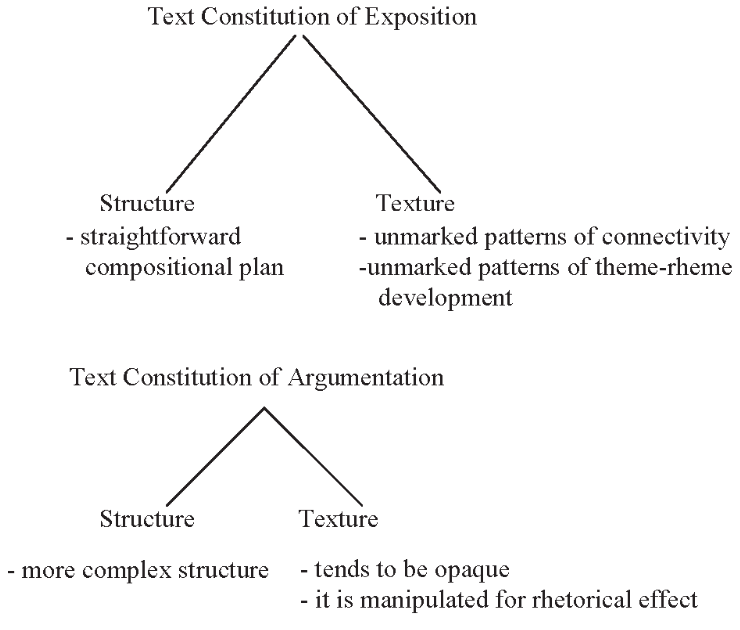
4.6.2.1 The notion of text type and the design of a translation teaching curriculum

The first important question Hatim and Mason raise with regard to curriculum design relates to the basis on which "the selection, the grading, and presentation of materials for the training of translators could be made more effective" (Ibid: 179). They suggest that one way to do this is to adopt a textlinguistic approach, and more specifically, the notion of text type. This proposal is derived from their view that language use in general is seen in terms of rhetorical purposes. That is, any communicative activity is bound to involve language users in one of the following possible aims: to argue, to present information or to instruct. These goals are said to produce a set of text types which can be characterized as being predominantly argumentative, expository or instructive. Moreover, these text types are said to vary in the degree of their "evaluativeness" along a continuum ranging from "extremely detached and non-evaluative" (e.g. expository texts), to those which are "extremely involved and highly evaluative" (e.g. argumentative texts). In fact, even within a particular text type, the "arrangement of text forms reflects a gradation from least to most evaluative" (Hatim1997 b: 180). Hatim & Mason define the notion of text evaluativeness as:

> a textual orientation which is established and maintained by means of a variety of linguistic devices that singly or collectively signal a move from what has been referred to as a situation monitoring towards situation managing. (Hatim & Mason 1997: 182)

Having opted for the notion of text type as the major criterion for classifying and grading texts, Hatim and Mason attempt to relate this notion to the actual process of translation and the translator at work (Ibid: 181). The rationale for this procedure has to do with the relationship said to exist between text type and level of difficulty. Thus, the translation of an expository text type is less demanding than the translation of an argumentative text type. These different demands are ascribed to the different aspects of text constitution within each one of these types, i.e. differences in text structure and texture. The characteristics of expository and argumentative texts are represented by Hatim and Mason (1997: 181) (and adapted here) as follows:

Figure 3: The characteristics of expository and argumentative texts


Text Constitution of Exposition
Structure
- straightforward compositional plan
Texture
- unmarked patterns of connectivity
-unmarked patterns of theme-rheme development
Text Constitution of Argumentation
Structure
- more complex structure
Texture
- tends to be opaque
- it is manipulated for rhetorical effect

Because of these different aspects of text constitution, the translator has to adopt a translation approach which "tends towards the literal" for the expository text type and another which "allows greater latitude" for the argumentative text type (Ibid).

4.6.2.2 Text forms in curriculum design

Adopting the text type criterion in the classification of text types is the first important step in a translation training curriculum design. As shown above, this initial step allows the translator to decide on a global translation approach: literal or free. The following step, according to Hatim & Mason, is to identify the various text forms that are commonly encountered within a particular text type by resorting to genre criteria and typical linguistic features (Ibid: 190-191) and by adopting an ordering which reflects an increasing degree of evaluativeness.

Within the exposition text type, Hatim & Mason have established the following text forms:

1. the abstract
2. the synopsis
3. the summary
4. the entity-oriented news report (i.e. listing the aims of a new organization).
5. the event-oriented / non evaluative news report
6. the event-oriented

Etc.

As for the argumentation text type they have established the following text forms:

1. the analytical through argument
2. the horatory through argument
3. the explicit (lopsided) counter-argument
4. the suppressed counter-argument

4.6.2.3 Genre and discourse in curriculum design

Using the notion of text type and the concomitant text forms in the translation training curriculum design is very useful in raising students' awareness of text constitution, i.e. "the compositional plan and cohesion of texts". However, for Hatim & Mason, introducing students to the notion of text type should take place at a more intermediate, even elementary pre-advanced stage. At a more advanced stage, students should be introduced to how these text types and their forms become “operational” within a given genre, and particular discourse features, e.g. the use of a counter-argumentative text form within a Letter to the Editor as a genre, etc. According to Hatim & Mason,

> A structural format or a cohesive pattern can only become operational by being appropriate to a given genre and even more significantly by being felicitous in relaying a given discoursal attitude. Thus, it becomes necessary at a second stage to refine our syllabus design by introducing discoursal and generic values. This second stage will be appropriate to a more advanced level of training. (Hatim & Mason 1997: 193)

4.6.2.4 Dynamic texts in curriculum design

According to Hatim and Mason (Ibid), the scale of evaluativeness is useful in classifying texts into those that are least evaluative (expository text type) and those that are most evaluative (argumentative text type). However, it is also suggested that this classification is “a somewhat idealized view of the rhetorical purpose of texts” and that the reality of language use presents us with things which are far from ideal”. They, thus, argue that one has to superimpose on the continuum of evaluativeness another scale of markedness. In other words, texts have to be identified for their degree of markedness as well. An unmarked text is defined as one that is static, i.e. expectation fulfilling; whereas a marked text is one that is dynamic, i.e. expectation defying. An expository text in a news report would then be considered static because one expects this non-evaluative text type to occur within this genre. Similarly, an argumentative text in an editorial would also be considered static as one expects this kind of evaluative text to occur within this genre. On the other hand, if one has argumentation in a news report or exposition in a Letter to the Editor, this would be considered as marked because these texts are not expected within these genres.

Hatim & Mason suggest that the phenomenon of marked texts could be attributed to the communication explosion witnessed around the globe:

> The communication explosion has brought with it more flexibility, more creativity in the way people use language. Genres of writing and speaking are no longer static entities but are evolving and influencing each other. The stiffly formulaic use of language in official texts has diminished and there are departures from norms - which are all the more significant for being unexpected. (Ibid: viii)

Diagrammatically, the interaction between the two scales of evaluativeness and markedness could be represented as follows, using a slightly different representation from that of Hatim & Mason (1997: 183):

Figure 4: The interaction between the evaluativeness and markedness scale

STATIC TEXTS

S. M: - M ——— - M
S. E: - E ——— + E
Expository — Argumentative
(news report) — (editorial)

DYNAMIC TEXTS

S. M: + M ——— + M
S. E: - E ——— + E
Argumentation (in news report) — Exposition (in a letter to the editor)

(SM= Scale of Markednes; SE= Scale of Evaluativeness; +M= + Marked; - M= - Marked; + E = + Evaluative; -E= - Evaluative)

Genres and discourses, like texts, can also be used in either an unmarked or a marked way. These three aspects of the semiotic domain of context (genre, discourse, text) are not the only ones to which the markedness scale could be applied. The other domains of context, namely the pragmatic and the communicative domains are also subject to the application of the markedness scale. Markedness in the pragmatic domain occurs when "intentionality in the use of language is opaque or indirect." (Ibid: 184-185). In the communicative domain, markedness occurs when there is hybridization of register.

The variations of intentionality and register on the markedness scale (MS) are represented diagrammatically below, following Hatim and Mason (Ibid: 186) but with a slight modification (9)

Figure 5: Variations of intentionality and register on the markedenss scale

MS STATIC —————————— DYNAMIC
Legal discourses Legal discourses
(clear intentionality) (opaque intentionality)
Variation of register on the markedness scale
STATIC DYNAMIC
MS
Advertising Advertising
(uniform register) (hybrid register:
promotional +legal)

According to Hatim and Mason (Ibid: 194), the third stage of the curriculum design would consist of the marked or dynamic uses of language. Concerning dynamism, they suggest working with a checklist of departures from some norm. This list would cover, for example:

a. Hybridization of register
b. Opaqueness of intention
c. Shifts of genre
d. Expectation-defying text structures
e. Marked texture

For Hatim (2001: 181), this would “ensure that text impurity is fully captured and hybridization accounted for both within a single text and across textual boundaries.”

Based on the foregoing discussion, Hatim and Mason (1997: 194) suggest a graded multi-stage curriculum design which is further refined by Hatim (2001:182). The multi-stage model is simplified below:

Figure 6: A graded multi-stage curriculum design

Stage 1: Unmarked Forms
FOCUS ON TEXT FORMATS OF
Instructional Expository Argumentative
Stage 2: Unmarked Forms (Expectation-Fulfilling)
FOCUS ON NEGOTIATION PROCEDURES IN
Text
Discourse
Genre

Stage 3: Marked Forms (Expectation-Defying)
Instructional Expository Argumentative

4.7 Translation Assessment

4.7.1 Overview

According to Chau (1984), “one of the main tasks of translation pedagogy is the testing of the students at various levels of the programme”. House (1997: 167) also stresses the importance of translation assessment in training translators, arguing that

> a theory of translation and translation quality assessment must underlie any pedagogic training for translators.

For Mason (1987: 79), however, translation evaluation has not been dealt with as extensively and as thoroughly as translating activity despite its potential capability for clarifying even further the nature of the latter. The exception here, in Mason’s view, is the work of House (1977) which he considers as “the most thorough attempt at evolving a model for translation quality assessment” (Mason: p. 83). Nevertheless, Mason maintains that translation assessment is lagging behind compared with the new developments in translating activity where translating is no longer regarded as a comprehension exercise but as a communicative activity:

> “The assumptions on which are based the assessment tasks, which we all have to perform regularly, are seldom re-examined and there may be a danger that, while our conception of the rationale for translating on a degree course is evolving, assessment is static and rests upon a conception of translation as an exercise in scaling a series of linguistic hurdles, each one carrying penalty points, graded according to the degree of linguistic or lexical sophistication involved” (Ibid)

Thus, for the purpose of attaining “standardization and consistency of grading in translation testing”, Mason argues that “a common meta-language is needed” (Ibid: 80):

> If any meaningful exchange of views and experiences is to take place, the vague and impressionistic terms “reads well”, “stilted”, “doesn’t sound right”, “captures the spirit of”, etc. must be replaced by a set of terms for the proper and precise analysis of texts (ST or TT) and their function in context – and these terms will themselves define a set of criteria for forming judgements about translations” (Mason 1997: 80 – 81).

Accordingly, Mason proposes a metalanguage for the analysis of texts and for the evaluation of quality of a TT with respect to its ST.

This metalanguage consists of the following categories: communicative context (field, mode and tenor), pragmatic context (speech acts, text act, etc.), semiotic context (text type, genre and discourse), structure and texture.

For House (1997), dealing with translation evaluation forces one to address "the heart of any theory of translation, i.e. the crucial question of the nature of translation" (p. 1), and, more specifically, the nature of the relationship between a ST and its translation, as well as the relationship between ST features and language users (i.e. the writer, translator and receiver).

However, according to House, different approaches to translation activity will yield different conceptions of translation quality assessment. These approaches are classified into four main categories: early reflections on translation quality assessment, the neo-hermeneutic approach, the response-oriented approaches and the text-based approaches.

To discuss the strengths and weaknesses of a given translation, early reflections on translation quality assessment made use of criteria such as faithfulness to the original, safeguarding the original's special flavour, preserving the spirit of the original and the enjoyment experienced by the reader of the translation. (House 1997: 1)

The neo-hermeneutic approach regarded the comprehension, interpretation and translation of the ST as "individual creative acts", and a "good" translation as a result of the identification of the translator with the original. This identification, however, according to House, does not guarantee a translation of quality. (House 1997: 2)

Both the early reflections and the neo-hermeneutic approach are said to adopt a subjective view of translation assessment (Ibid). The neo-hermeneutic is said to be dependent on "personal knowledge, intuitions, interpretive skills and artistic literary competence" (Ibid). In other words, the attempt to set up empirically based and transparent criteria for the evaluation of translations is therefore not considered worthwhile. Moreover, both these approaches are said to ignore the relationship between the ST and the translation. In addition to this, these approaches are criticized for disregarding the expectations of the target audience.

House also criticizes the relativisation of content by the neo-hermeneutic approach:

> Such extreme relativisation of content is inappropriate as a guideline for evaluating translations: a translation is not a private affair but normally

> carries with it a threefold responsibility to the author, the reader and the text. (Ibid: 3)

The third main approach to translation assessment according to House is the one advocated by Nida (1964), namely the response-oriented approach. This builds on the basic tenet that a translation should produce equivalent responses. For House, this approach has two weaknesses which have to do with the difficulty of testing empirically the degree of equivalent response and a disregard of the original text.

The last main approach to translation assessment, a text-based approach, is thus by far superior and subsumes two sub-approaches: a functionalist approach and a set of linguistic sub-approaches.

The functionalist approach takes into consideration the purpose of the translation. Consequently, the most important criterion for assessing a translation in this approach is the extent to which the expectations of the target readers are taken into account. In this regard, House states:

> Given the primacy of the purpose of a translation, it is the way target culture norms are heeded that is the most important yardstick for assessing the quality of a translation (Ibid: 11)

In the linguistic sub-approaches, on the other hand, the source text is considered as the most important element in translation activity and translation assessment. The source text is viewed here not merely in terms of its linguistic and textual structures but also, and perhaps more importantly, in terms of a broader view of its context of situation which includes communicative, pragmatic and semiotic dimensions. According to House (1997: 17), the main representatives of this approach are Reiss in the 1970s (a text type approach), Neubert in the 1980s (a textual and pragma-linguistic approach) and Hatim & Mason's model in the 1990s (a discourse model).

4.7.2 Equivalence and translation evaluation in House's Model

House's model (1977) (1997) is a linguistically-oriented model. This model offers a method for analyzing the linguistic and situational features of the ST and the TT, and thereby characterizing the function of the individual text. Concerning translation evaluation per se, the model suggests comparing the ST textual profile, which is an account of the linguistic and situational correlations and in which the function of the text is characterized, with the textual profile of the TT. This profile then becomes "the yardstick" with which the quality of a translation is assessed.

In addition to drawing on insights from pragmatic theories of language use and Halliday's functional and systematic theory so as to characterize the textual profile of an individual text, the model is also fundamentally based on an elaborate concept of equivalence that is used as a criterion for evaluating the quality of a translation.

Reiss's notion of equivalence is invoked as "the relationship between an original and its translation whenever both fulfil the same communicative function" (Reiss in House 1997: 29). House defines the nature of this relationship further as the preservation of semantic, pragmatic and textual meanings across two different languages; but she subjects all these types of meaning first to the requirement that the TT has the same function as the ST.

> Equivalence I take to be the fundamental criterion of translation quality. Thus, an adequate translation text is a pragmatically and semantically equivalent one. As a first requirement for this equivalence it is posited that a translation text has a function equivalent to that of its source text. (House 1997: 32)

Moreover, House makes the interesting point that the relationship between a ST and a TT is a double-binding one:

> Translation is characterized by a double-binding relationship both to its source and to the communicative conditions of the receiving linguaculture. (Ibid: 29)

Building on this definition, House distinguishes between overt and covert translation:

> In overt translation the function of the translation is to enable its readers access to the function of the original in its original linguacultural setting through another language. By contrast, the function of a covert translation is to imitate the original's function in a different discourse world… One of the means of achieving this functional equivalence is through the employment of a cultural filter, with which shifts and changes along various pragmatic parameters are conducted. (Ibid)

Establishing equivalence when translating, then, necessitates first making a global and strategic choice as to the general direction of the translation: is it towards the ST or towards "the communicative conditions of the receiving linguaculture?"

4.7.2.1 Individual text function establishment in translation quality assessment

In House’s model of translation quality assessment, it is suggested that a statement on the quality of a translation presupposes a comparison of the textual profiles of the ST and the TT; i.e. comparing the linguistic-situational correlations and the function of the ST with those of the TT. However, to establish functional equivalence between a ST and a TT, the source text has to be analyzed first such that the equivalence which may be sought for the translation text can be stated precisely” (House 1997: 37). Any mismatches along the linguistic-situational correlations are said to result in a functional mismatch, i.e. a faulty translation:

> The degree to which the textual profile of the translation text matches or does not match that of the ST is the degree to which the translation text is more or less adequate in quality. (Ibid: 42)

From the above, it then becomes clear that the notion of ‘function’ takes on a great importance in House’s quality translation assessment model. House, however, warns against any misrepresentation of this notion. She thus draws attention to the distinction between an individual text’s function and language functions:

> The use of the term ‘function’ in this context is open to misinterpretation, mainly because different language functions can co-exist inside what will here be described as an individual text’s function and because language functions have often been directly and in my opinion incorrectly correlated with textual types. (Ibid: 32)

She further adds that although a typology “based on a predominant language function exhibited in the text is useful for selecting and classifying texts for analysis, it is of no use in terms of determining an individual text’s function, let alone establishing functional equivalence”. (Ibid: 36)

Among the language functions that House enumerates, there are those suggested by Bühler (1965), Karl Popper (1972) and Halliday (1973). Bühler proposes three main language functions: representational, emotive-expressive and conative. The representational function describes the “extra linguistic reality’’. The emotive-expressive function refers to the feelings of the encoder of the message. The conative function focuses on the message receiver. For Bühler, the representational function is unmarked and is found in any message, whereas the two other functions are marked.

Halliday also works with three language functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. The first two are similar to Bühler’s representational and emotive-expressive. The ideational function describes things in the external world. The interpersonal one serves to express the speaker’s attitude and feelings as well as the relationship with her/his interlocutors. The textual function, however, is distinct; it allows language “to make links with itself and with the situation’’, thus enabling the construction of texts. (House 1997: 35)

Now to establish the function of an individual text, House avoids associating a text type with a predominant language function that is manifest in the text as Reiss has done. Instead, she defines the function of a text “as the use which the text has in the particular context of situation” (Ibid: 36). More precisely, the function of an individual text is the outcome of two operations:

1. Undertaking a systematic linguistic-pragmatic analysis of the text in its context of situation in order to characterize its textual profile; i.e. indicating how the different situational dimensions are realized syntactically, lexically and textually.
2. Examining the way in which the situational dimensions contribute to the language functions which are usually present in any given text.

4.7.2.2 Translation quality assessment in the teaching of translation:

House suggests some pedagogic principles and procedures for incorporating her model of translation quality assessment in teaching translation. Among the most important points in these principles and procedures one finds:

a. Teaching the difference between *overt* and *covert* translations.
b. Analyzing and comparing different translations of the same source text using the model of translation quality assessment.
c. Analyzing the source text by first using the metalanguage of the translation quality assessment model and then translating the texts as overt or covert versions. (House 1997: 167)

These suggestions, according to House, are very general. She thus calls upon translation teachers to find some ways for their practical realization:

> These suggestions are, of course, very general, as can perhaps be excused given the purpose of this book. I therefore leave the detailed realization

and empirical testing of the above suggestions to experienced translation teachers (Ibid)

4.7.3 Testing achievement in translating and evaluating translations

According to Farahzad (1992: 271), evaluating and scoring students' work should be done following "concrete criteria", and not on the basis of a subjective approach. Farahzad further adds that "our classes are large and we must set up standards for assessment which are accepted as tolerably objective, both by our students and ourselves as teachers" (ibid). For this goal, House's model of translation quality assessment "as an empirically based attempt to make the evaluation of translations more objective", seems the most appropriate because "instead of taking the psychological category of readers' intuitions and beliefs as the cornerstone of translation evaluation, the model looks at language in social life and focuses on texts, the products of human decision processes that are the most tangible and least ambiguously analysable entities (Ibid: 118).

For the construction of a valid translation test, Farahzad (1992: 272) suggests the use of both limited-response and free-response techniques. The first will enable teachers to deal with certain delicate points identified by contrastive analyses between the source and target languages such as: interference of the source language syntax, the lack of equivalents of certain language patterns in the target language, the mismatches of lexical items between source and target language, etc. The second will help teachers decide on the degree to which the students "can treat a text as a piece of discourse and translate it adequately" (Ibid).

A) Limited-response tests:

In this kind of test, there are three types of questions: error recognition, multiple choice questions and the provision of target language equivalents. (Ibid: 273). In error recognition, the examinees have to identify errors in translated sentences or texts and then correct them. They, furthermore, have to justify their answers. The errors could be related to meaning, grammar, word choice, punctuation, transliteration or individual text function. In multiple-choice questions, the examinees have to choose between two target translations of a SL sentence or text by encircling the better one. Finally, in the provision of target language equivalents, the students are asked to give target language equivalents for certain SL words and phrases.

B) Controlled free-response tests:

In this type of test, the testees' translations are controlled by the source language text, i.e. their translations seek to emulate the ST's content and sometimes even its form. On the other hand, these tests allow the testees the freedom to decide on certain equivalents rather than others, to opt for certain arrangements or adjustments or to leave out certain source text items completely. According to Farahzad (1992: 274 – 275), this type of test is:

> an integrated test examining several components of translation at a time, such as comprehension of the ST, accuracy in terms of content, appropriateness of grammatical forms, and choice of words, etc.

Farahzad further adds that this procedure encourages testees to deal with the source text as a "coherent whole rather than as a string of disconnected sentences" (Ibid). However, to obtain valid results when assessing this test, Farahzad puts forward some conditions which translation teachers have to observe. One of these is adapting the degree of difficulty of the test to the level of the testees:

> The test must match the examinees' level of command of both source and target languages as well as their level of translational competence (Ibid).

It has to be noted, however, that the controlled free-response test could also be used to measure the testees' degree of textual awareness. Following this type of test, the testees could be asked to provide justifications or arguments for their translation decisions using insights from linguistic-based models such as Hatim & Mason (1990) and House (1997). Similarly, the limited-response test could also include questions asking the testees to justify their choices by invoking, for example, House's criteria for translation quality assessment: semantic and pragmatic equivalence, in addition to equivalence of the individual target text function with that of the source text.

Both limited-response tests and controlled free-response tests include the scoring of the testees' work as a final stage in the evaluation of their achievement. For Farahzad (1992: 276), when scoring, the examiner has to consider two criteria: the unit of translation and the weight to be given to various aspects of this unit.

The unit of translation could be either the sentence or the text. If it is the sentence, the examiner should examine two features, namely accuracy and appropriateness and should give a score to both. Accuracy obtains when "the translation conveys the information in the source text precisely, without addition or deletion", whereas appropriateness refers to whether the sentences "sound fluent and native, and are correct in terms of grammatical forms" (Ibid: 276).

Farahzad proposes the following marking scheme for the evaluation of the sentence as a unit of translation:

- A correct sentence which does not preserve the content receives no score.
- If the target version conveys the message, but in a structure which distorts the meaning, the translation receives no score.
- If the message is conveyed, albeit in a grammatically unnatural form, the translation receives half a score.

As for the error recognition test, Farahzad suggests giving a score when the testee detects the error and a score when he corrects it. Only half a score is given if the testee fails to provide a correction of the error.

If the unit of translation is the text, on the other hand, then scoring, according to Farahzad, could take one of two forms: holistic scoring or objectified scoring (Ibid: 277).

In holistic scoring, the examiner reads the translation once and gives credit for each of the following features: accuracy, appropriateness, naturalness, cohesion and style of discourse (i.e. choice of words and grammatical structures). Farahzad does not favour this kind of scoring because of its subjective character and prefers the use of objectified scoring which is said to be more reliable even though it requires a longer time to complete.

In objectified scoring, the examiner has to read the translation twice: first, to check accuracy and appropriateness and second cohesion and style. Moreover, while considering accuracy and appropriateness is said to take place at the level of the sentence as the unit of translation, examining cohesion and style is said to take place at the textual level. Each of these features (accuracy, appropriateness, cohesion and style) is then given a particular score. This kind of scoring, according to Farahzad, is ideal with large classes.

It may be remarked that although an attempt is made in Farahzad's work to deal with the nature of the ST and TT in terms of equivalence relations with regard to accuracy, appropriateness, cohesive links and style, the nature of the relationship between the ST features and language users (writer, translator and receiver) is disregarded. Thus, no reference is made to the different dimensions of context (communicative, pragmatic and semiotic). Similarly, no attempt is made to deal with the relationships in a translation between texture, structure and higher contextual dimensions; i.e. a translated text, which is the result of motivated choices on the part of the translator, is neglected.

As shown above, following House (1977) (1997), to deal with this kind of relationship, the linguistic and situational features of the ST have to be analyzed and the function of the individual text has subsequently to be established, thus leading to the ST's textual profile.

Farahzad seems to be concentrating on what House calls "overtly erroneous errors", i.e. errors which result from differences in the denotative meanings of the source and translation text elements, or from a violation of the target language system. In contrast, he disregards "covertly erroneous errors", i.e. contextual errors and functional matching.

In conclusion, when scoring students' translations, one should not concentrate just on linguistic equivalence relationships between the ST and TT. One should go beyond that and see the extent to which the student has been successful in interacting and interpreting the ST features and in preserving the individual text's function as stated in the ST textual profile. While checking accuracy and appropriateness in a translation test is quite suitable for beginning translation students, it is necessary for advanced translation students to demonstrate that the appropriateness of particular items is subject to the position of these items within an overall textual plan involving relations between texture, structure and discourse (Hatim & Mason 1990).

CHAPTER V

TRANSLATION TEACHING EXPERIMENT: TEXT IN CONTEXT

5.1 Aims

The main purpose of this investigation was to conduct an experiment involving some 4th year university students of English in Casablanca, Morocco, with the aim of gleaning some empirical evidence for the didactic value of translating text in context. The theoretical framework of the study is based on a number of discourse models, including those elaborated by Hatim & Mason (1990) (1997) and House (1997). Following each major teaching point in the experiment, the students are evaluated using the pre-test / post-test technique, interviews (coming immediately after each of these tests), and a questionnaire in order to learn more about their assimilation of each of those major teaching points and to measure the effects of the training they have received on the development of an overall discourse awareness.

5.2 Design of the experiment

The experiment design draws primarily on House's Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) and related text analysis model (1977) (1997), and on Hatim's multi-stage curriculum translation design (2001: 182) which consists of three stages of an increasing degree of difficulty commensurate with an increasing degree of text evaluativeness. The lessons in the experiment are structured according to the successive steps in House's model and following Hatim's multi-stage curriculum. For every stage, pre-test assignments are given followed by interviews and lecture-based seminars on the particular discursive point in a given pre-test: register, text types, genre and discourse. Each lecture is then followed by a post-test and a second interview.

5.3 The informants' profile

The informants are final year undergraduate students (1) of English language and literature at the Faculty of Letters, Ben Msik, Casablanca. They consist of three different groups from three different academic years: 2003-2004 (75 students), 2004-2005 (72 students) & 2005-2006 (70 students). The students in their final year of the second cycle, (the first cycle also consists of two years), have to choose between majoring either in literature with the following main subjects: literary criticism, classical drama, modern poetry, or in linguistics with the following subjects: syntax, phonology, semantics, sociolinguistics and applied linguistics. In addition, both groups have to follow a common core course covering these subjects: translation, the novel and stylistics (2).

Translation is taught only in the second cycle, i.e. in the 3rd year (2 hours per week) and in the 4th year (1 hour and a half per week). Generally, students' attendance in all the curriculum courses is rather low. This is because, on the whole, the university education system in Morocco especially in the faculties of humanities and social sciences, does not compel students to attend lectures on the assumption that students at this stage are mature enough and can therefore follow university courses, if need be, from a distance by borrowing notes from their fellow students who regularly attend or simply by reading the lecturer's list of reference books. As a university course, translation has not escaped this general trend of class absenteeism. However, in the case of the translation course, the poor attendance is also and perhaps more seriously, due to a widespread misconception among students regarding the nature of a translation course per se. By and large, most students tend to believe that translation is a course that does not necessitate any training or formal education. Moreover, they think that the dictionary will always be there to consult for any translation problem that may arise on the day of the final examination. To illustrate the magnitude of the problem, the number of students who attended the translation class during the 2004-2005 academic year was just 30 out of 72 students. This small group itself can be further subdivided into two groups: those who attended regularly, and those whose attendance was irregular.

The female students were nearly two thirds more than the male students. Most of the students were between 22 and 25 years of age: 26 students; the youngest was 21 and the oldest 32. Four students spent 6 years at the undergraduate level, while the others spent between 4 and 5 years (4 years being the number of years normally required). There were only three repeaters in this group of 30, i.e. they repeated one year in the second cycle. Concerning knowledge of foreign languages other than English, all of the 30 students spoke French, and only 8 of them spoke Italian in addition. There was only one student who could speak five languages: Italian, French, Spanish, Russian, English in addition to Arabic of course.

All these students followed a two-hour-a-week translation course in their third year. This was an introductory course which focused mainly on interlingual aspects of translation from Arabic into English and vice-versa, following, to a great extent, the syllabus proposed by Mona Baker in her translation course book *In Other Words* (1992). The translation syllabus for third year students thus consisted of the following items:

- definition of translation and translating
- introduction to translation studies: theoretical, descriptive and applied
- special features of Arabic and English
- contrastive grammar (English and Arabic)
- word level translation: lexical meaning and semantic fields
- above word level translation: collocation, idioms & fixed expressions
- introducing cultural meaning: language and culture, cultural distance and overlap (ecology, religious thinking and customs)

5.4 The teaching method

There is no doubt that the teaching method has a great influence on the results of the experiment. The teaching method followed here, which is intended to be as systematic as possible, is informed by the translation course content and the pedagogical principles developed below. This teaching method has had to be slightly adjusted for the purpose of the experiment, which is to find some empirical evidence for the didactic value of translating text in context for 4th year students.

5.4.1 The teaching method and the content of the translation course

The teaching method is inextricably linked with the translation course content or curriculum. Concerning 3rd year students, the curriculum includes translation themes which have usually been prominent in different translation training curricula in some institutions, such as language training, linguistic training, contrastive grammar, introduction to the theory of translation, introduction to pragmatics and discourse analysis, as well as activities prior to translating proper such as: active reading, comparing translations of a ST and précis-writing. As for 4th year students, the curriculum covers the interpretive aspects of translation: register, text types, genre and discourse.

5.4.2 Pedagogical principles of the teaching method

The teaching method used by the researcher throughout the 3rd and 4th year levels aimed at presenting this content in a manner which took into account two important didactic principles, namely: a) gradual sequencing and b) being clear about the goals of the translation teaching course. Thus, the sequencing of the content moved from the general to the particular and from the simple to the difficult, i.e. moving from the linguistic aspects of translation to the cultural and subsequently to the interpretive core. In this connection, Chau states:

The arrangement of the teaching contents according to the "linguistic – cultural – textual" sequence is at the same time a matter of necessity (it is prudent to teach one thing at a time) and a matter of principle, based on the assumption that there is a case for the argument that in TT, bilingual competence should come before cultural competence, and both before interpretive competence. (Chau 1984: 160)

The goals of the translation course, which could also be regarded as consecutive stages in its execution, are classified into three: a preparation stage, a developmental stage and an independent application stage. The preparation stage consists of pre-translation activities and introductions of the translation lessons. The developmental stage attempts to help the student learn how to deal with a translation task more rationally and more consciously by invoking the most appropriate translation techniques and strategies; in other words, it seeks to assist the student in building up a certain translational competence. In the last stage, the techniques and strategies learnt in the second stage are practised through various translation tasks, such as comparing and criticizing translations and practising translating texts.

Every translation lesson has to follow these three stages. The translation course curriculum presented in section 5. 5 below represents these three stages in relation to particular translation teaching points (lessons).

5.4.3 The teaching method and the translation experiment

Given the structure of the experiment design (pre-test, evaluation, interview, lecture, post-test, evaluation, interview), the teaching method (consisting of three stages: a preparatory stage, a developmental stage and a practical stage), has had to be slightly adjusted. Thus, instead of starting with the first stage, i.e. the preparatory stage, and then moving to the developmental stage and the practical one, it was necessary to set the pre-test first and then move on to the lecture. Here, the introductory and developmental stages took place with varying degrees of length. As for the post-test, it was used not only as a means of practice, but also as a way of measuring students' acquisition of the main point in the translation lesson. However, it has to be admitted that due to shortage of time, and given the number of translation points investigated in the experiment, the developmental and practical stages were not fully implemented, thus leading sometimes to a general feeling among students that some translation lessons were dealt with hastily and superficially.

5.5 The content of the translation lessons

While 3rd year students were introduced to the interlingual stage and, to a lesser degree, to the cultural stage in all their aspects, 4th year students were introduced to the interpretive stage only. The teaching lessons for the latter stage covered the discursive points in Hatim's multi-stage translation curriculum design, namely, text type, genre and discourse. They also covered register analysis. For each of these points, appropriate source texts were carefully selected. Many of these texts came from Hatim's book (1997b) *English / Arabic / English Translation: A Practical Guide* and *Working with Texts* (1997) by Carter, et al.

Following is a tentative course curriculum, which illustrates the content of the translation lessons used with 3rd and 4th year students, along with the teaching method pursued. This course curriculum should be regarded as a synthesis of the illuminating proposals made by Reiss (1976), Chau (1984), Hatim & Mason (1990) (1997), Holmes (1972), Baker (1992), and House (1997).

Underlying this synthesis and presentation is a strong desire to present to the student material that is cumulative, meaningful and confidence-building.

A. Translation course curriculum: 3rd year level.

1) Pre-translation activities:

- Definitions of translation
- Introduction to translation studies: theoretical, descriptive and applied
- Reading efficiency training: comprehension processes.
- Précis-writing

2) Interlingual content:

A) Aim: to develop bilingual competence through an understanding of the nature of human language, the special features of English and Arabic, the lexical and grammatical similarities and contrasts between English & Arabic.

B) Content:

- General linguistics
- Special features of English & Arabic (writing system, historical linguistics…)
- Contrastive grammar (English / Arabic): parts of speech, word order…
- Word level translation:
  . lexical meaning: referential, expressive, presupposed and evoked meaning
  . semantic fields
- Above word level translation : collocations , idioms and fixed expressions

C) Teaching method: three-stage objectives:

a) A preparatory stage: introducing the content items above

b) A developmental stage: learning to translate rationally (lexico-grammatical translation strategies)

. translation equivalence
. borrowing, paraphrasing, explaining
. translating and semantic fields
. translating idioms and fixed expressions

c) An application stage: practising the techniques used in the developmental stage through:

. comparing translations
. assessing translations
. translating words in sentences
. translating collocational phrases and idiomatic expressions

3) Intercultural content:

A) *Aim*: to develop bicultural competence through raising students' awareness of cultural differences between language communities and sensitizing the student to the relation between culture and language and its relevance to translation.

B) Content:

- Language and culture
- Cultural meaning
- Sapir-Worf hypothesis
- Cultural distance and overlap between Arabic and English:

. ecology
. religious thinking
. customs

C) Teaching method: three-stage objectives

a) A preparatory stage: introducing the content items above

b) A developmental stage:

- Learning to deal with cultural equivalence through some techniques:
  . cultural substitution
  . omission
  . explaining
  . adapting
- Distinguishing dynamic vs. formal translation and overt vs. covert translation

c) An application stage: practising the techniques used in the developmental stage through

- Comparing translations
- Criticizing translations
- Translating words in sentences
- Translating cultural collocations
- Translating proverbs

B. Translation course curriculum: 4th year level

Interpretive content:

A) *Aim*: to develop students' competence in interpreting the communicative, pragmatic and semiotic factors in the ST and re-employ these factors in the TT.

B) *Content*:

- Register
- Text types

- Genre
- Discourse

C) *Teaching method: three-stage objectives*

  a) A preparatory stage: introducing the content items above
  b) A developmental stage: learning to use House's text analysis model and Hatim & Mason's contrastive discourse model.
  c) An application stage: translating texts using House's text analysis model and Hatim & Mason's contrastive discourse model.

5.6 The conduct of the experiment

The pre-tests were done in class and usually took between 20 to 40 minutes depending on the nature of the translation task. These pre-tests were then evaluated by the researcher, using the model of House and that of Hatim and Mason, to see the extent to which the translation point was successfully or unsuccessfully translated. Students' mistakes were pointed out on the assignment papers and were then catalogued by the researcher to be later compared with their performance in the post-tests. After each pre-test, both those students who were successful in rendering the translation point and those who were unsuccessful were interviewed to find out how they reached their results.

Although one-way communication, or lecturing, was the predominant mode of introducing the translation point, students were invited to ask questions about the lesson and sometimes were asked to pair off and try to solve a particular translation problem.

The lectures were planned in such a way as to link new material to what was previously taught. This linking is necessary for meaningful learning and, in fact, it was made according to the multi-stage curriculum design proposed by Hatim (2001) and by reference to House's model (1997). The lectures took place after an inductive mode of presentation: one or two students' faulty translations were written on the board and all students were invited to comment on the translation with reference to the ST. After this warm-up, students were introduced to the issues relating to the translation point and were given illustrative texts in which the particular point was present. The purpose behind supplying these texts was to enhance their awareness of the issue and thereby help them to improve their developing translation competence. These lectures were finally supplemented with some reading material, mostly handouts, which examined the issues from different angles.

During the post-tests, the students were either given the same source text which had been set in the pre-test or one that was very similar. After the evaluation of their work, those students who succeeded in translating the point under examination were once again interviewed to find out the translating processes they had used to attain such results. The interviews were very brief; the main question asked was: what steps did you follow to translate the text successfully?

5.7 The students' performance in the pre-tests and post-tests

The students were given pre-tests and post-tests followed by interviews to measure the effect of the translation teaching method. The experiment dealt with the following areas:

- Register analysis and register equivalence
- Genre identification and generic equivalence
- The translation of different text types
- The translation of discourse (the speaker's/ writer's attitude)

5.7.1 Pre-tests: Register

The pre-tests took different forms: an error recognition test, a multiple choice question test and a controlled free response test. These pre-tests were then followed by the researcher's evaluation, an interview (in which the students attempted to justify their translations) and a lecture. The pre-tests are given below.

Error recognition test:

1. Read the following short texts and underline the words or expressions which are not suitable (out of place).
2. Replace these words or expressions by more suitable ones.
3. Justify your decisions / answers.
4. Translate the revised texts into Arabic.

Text 1:

The author here makes a promise to the publisher that the work will be in no way whatever a transgression against any existing copyright and that it will contain nothing obscene.

Text 2: (Two close friends)

A - I would love to continue this conversation really; however, it is necessary to go now. I have to return to the office.

B - Well, let’s get together soon.

A - Okay. I wonder if it would be possible for you to have lunch with me one day next week, say, next Tuesday.

B - Oh, unfortunately, I’m tied up on Tuesday. I am going to accompany my uncle to the airport to bid him farewell.

Text 3: (Airport announcement)

Lufthansa is sorry to tell you about the late arrival of flight LH 068 to London Heathrow. Will passengers on this flight please dwell in the departure room until we contact you later.

Multiple choice questions test:

1) Will you marry me ?
   - a- هل ستتزوجيني؟
   - b- أتريدين الزواج مني؟
   - c- أتقبلين الزواج مني؟
   - d- ماذا لو تزوجنا؟

2) I hereby declare the meeting open
   - a- أصرح بافتتاح الاجتماع
   - b- افتتح الاجتماع
   - c- أعلن بهذا عن افتتاح الاجتماع

3) Shall we make a start?
   - a- هلا بدأنا الآن؟
   - b- ما رأيك لو بدأنا؟
   - c- هل سنبدأ ؟

4) No smoking
   - a- لا للتدخين
   - b- ممنوع التدخين
   - c- أطفئ سيجارتك

Controlled free response test:

Translate the following text into Arabic:

The cow and the frogs

A cow was eating some grass one day. There were some frogs in the grass but the cow did not see them. It stepped on many of them but one frog was not hurt. It hopped home to tell its mother.

'Mother,' he cried. 'There was a very, very big animal in the field and it stepped on my brothers and sisters. It was very, very big'.

The mother frog blew air into the skin below her mouth. It became as big as a ball.

'Was it as big as this?' she asked.

'Oh, much bigger' said the young frog.

The mother frog blew more air into the skin. Now it was as big as a balloon.

'Was it as big as this?' she asked.

'Oh, much bigger', said the young frog.

The mother frog tried again. She blew and blew.

'Was it as big as this, then?' she asked.

'Oh, much bigger, mother', said the young frog. 'Many times bigger. A hundred times bigger! You can never be as big as that animal. You will burst, like a balloon. You will never be as big as that animal.'

The mother frog became angry. 'I will be as big as that animal', she said. 'I will. I will'. She breathed deeply. Then she blew again. First she was as big as a ball. Then she was as big as a balloon. Then she was as big as a drum! Then – BANG! She burst! She fell down dead on the grass. An old frog saw this. 'That is a lesson for us all', he said. 'We must never try to look bigger or more important than we are.'

Error recognition:

1) Evaluation and interpretation of the students' translation errors

The number of recognition errors made by the students, (36 students), concerning the identification of the register (i.e. the social context) of each text, were counted and are given below:

Text 1	Number of students making recognition errors	Percentage
one recognition error	1	2.7%
two recognition errors	3	8.3%
three recognition errors	3	8.3%

four recognition errors	5	13.8%
five recognition errors	4	11.1%
six recognition errors	10	27.7%
seven recognition errors	4	11.1%
No answer	6	

Table: 1

In this text 23 students out of 36 made more than 4 recognition errors and 6 students provided no answer whatsoever.

Text 2	Number of students making recognition errors	Percentage
one recognition error	0	
two recognition errors	0	
three recognition errors	1	2.7%
four recognition errors	10	27.7%
five recognition errors	12	33.3%
six recognition errors	2	5.5%
No answer	11	30.5%

Table: 2

In this text 24 students out of 36 made more than 4 recognition errors and 11 students failed to provide any answer

Text 3	Number of students making recognition errors	Percentage
one recognition error	0	
two recognition errors	0	
three recognition errors	3	83.3%
No answer	6	16.6%

Table: 3

In this text 30 students out of 36 made 3 recognition errors and 6 students provided no answer.

2) The students’ feedback:

After finishing the error recognition pre-tests, the testees were asked to justify their answers in written. Quite strikingly, many students gave no justification for their answers. Only 8 students (22. 2%) justified their answers for text 3; 6 students (16. 6) justified their answers for text 2, and 11 students (30. 5%) for text 1.

Text	Number of students justifying their answers	Percentage
Text 1	11	30.5%
Text 2	6	16.6%
Text 3	8	22.5%

Table: 4

Some justification samples by students are given below:

Student 1:

(Text1) The change is necessary because the speech here is a conversation between two close friends; so the language should be informal.

(Text2) In this text, the language should be very formal; so we change the informal expressions into formal expressions to suit the situation. Example: “… is sorry to tell …” becomes “… is sorry to inform”.

Student 2:

(Text1) We should replace “I wonder if it would be possible” because it is formal and there is no formality between friends.

Student 3:

(Text 1) It is about an informal situation.
(Text 2) It is about a very formal situation.
(Text 3) It is about a formal situation.

Student 4:

(Text 1) Too formal expressions in an informal conversation.
(Text 3) The nature of the text is legal.

3) Interpretation of the results:

The figures in the tables above clearly show that students have a big problem recognizing errors of register in the ST. For table 1 and table 2, the students who made four or more recognition errors account for 63.7% and 66.5% respectively. As for those who produced no answer, they represent 16.6% and 30.5% respectively. The situation is much worse in table 3 where 83.3% made recognition errors and 16.6 % gave no answer. Moreover, only 8 students justified their answers for text 2. Is this a symptom of the intuitive thinking dominating rational thinking?

These are most alarming results and do demonstrate that the students' knowledge of register is not well-developed. One can thus only expect that their translations will be faulty at this level of context.

4) Evaluation of the testees' translations:

As it was predicted from the reading of the tables 1 to 4 above, the testees' unawareness of the importance of the situational context resulted in translations which did not match the ST register. Most of the translations were literal either because the testees failed to relate the words on the page to their context of situation, or because having possibly identified the particular situational context, they were unable to find and use the most appropriate word for this context. Thus, for text 3, i.e. the Lufthansa announcement, the verb "tell" and the clause "until we contact you later", are rendered literally instead of the more formal verb تخبر and the more impersonal expression حتى اتصال لاحق. The expression in the ST, "Lufthansa is sorry to tell you" was translated as

* يؤسف شركة لوفتانزا أن تقول لكم. In Text 1, the word *here* and the verb phrase « makes a promise » are rendered literally as هنا and يعد respectively instead of بهذا and يتعهد. Such inadequate translations are the outcome of a failure to appreciate the place of formulaic expressions, such as *I hereby*, in the ST.

Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ):

1) Evaluation and interpretation of the students' translation errors

The number of students taking this pre-test is 36. The most suitable answers for the MCQ are: 1-c, 2-c, 3-a and 4-b. The following table gives the number of students choosing the correct answer for each sentence and the number of those choosing the wrong answer for each sentence.

Sentences	Number of students choosing the correct answer	Percentage	Number of students choosing the wrong answer	Percentage
Sentence 1	11	30.5%	4	11.11%
Sentence 2	11	30.5%	9	25%
Sentence 3	11	30.5%	1	2.7%
Sentence 4	11	30.5%	9	25%

Table: 5

The number of students not answering the MCQ pre-test is 7 (19.4%).

2) The students’ feedback:

Only 6 students (16.6%) attempted to justify their answers, while the rest, 30 students (83.3%), provided no justification.

3) Interpretation of the results:

The number of students choosing the correct answer for the MCQ pre-test is far greater than the number of those who produced wrong answers. One possible explanation for this result could be the nature of this kind of test which, to a certain extent, assists the testees by narrowing down the range of possible options. Nevertheless, 25% of the testees still showed problems in interpreting sentences 2 and 4 in the MCQ pre-test.

4) Evaluation of the testees’ translations:

Concerning the translation of the MCQs, to take just sentence 1 and the written sign in 4, 25% of the testees incorrectly translated sentence 1 “will you marry me?” as*هل ستتزوجينني instead of أتقبلين الزواج مني ؟ Again, in this example, the testees translated the words in the sentence and failed to translate its functional meaning, which is making a request. Similarly, 25 % of the testees translated the written sign “No smoking” as لا للتدخين instead of ممنوع التدخين, thus failing to correlate this utterance with its normally associated situation. The utterance was apparently interpreted by the testees as a campaign slogan and translated accordingly. The back translation of لا للتدخين would in fact be: “Say no to smoking”.

Controlled free response:

'The cow and the frogs' text, a story for children, did not pose any translation problems for students. During the interview, the students largely attributed their unproblematic translations and the ease with which they rendered this text to the simplicity of the ST vocabulary and structure. However, they were not aware of other important factors which went into the making of this text.

The Lecture on Register

The students were given a lecture on register (see Appendix D) along the lines discussed in great detail in the relevant chapters of this work. The lecture included the following salient points:

- The register membership of the text.
- The pragmatics of the communicative act or how language is used to convey various intentions.
- The semiotics of culture which Hatim (2000: 13) defines as "the way language use relies on a system of signs which signifies knowledge and beliefs essential for members of a community to operate in an acceptable manner." This system of signs is referred to as textual practices and covers the following: genre, discourse and text types.

5.7.2 Post-tests: Register

The post tests required the students to conduct register analysis and produce the textual profile of a number of STs which then had to be translated. The purpose of these post-tests was to measure the effect of the use of register analysis by students on their translations.

Before embarking on this task, students first went through a practice stage during which they had to analyze the register of four texts before translating them.

Execution of the post- tests:

The execution of the post-tests took two forms:

1. The students were asked to conduct register analysis of the source texts and then to translate those texts in the light of this analysis.
2. The students were asked first to translate each text without register analysis; secondly, to conduct register analysis of each text; third, to retranslate the source text based on the register analysis.

A) Register analysis and translation:

TEXT 1: The question of literariness: criticism and its object

It has already been pointed out that the ultimate concern of the formalists was with the concept of literariness. They approached particular literary texts not as ends in themselves, to be understood on their own terms and for their own sake, but as vehicles for the exemplification and development of this concept. To appreciate more deeply what was involved in such a concern, it will be helpful to review the problems which confronted Saussure and the means by which he resolved them. (Bennett, T. 1979)

TEXT 2: Education

When we are five, whether we are boys or girls, we have to go to school, and we have to stay there, whether we like it or not, for years and years. Life at home goes on, of course, and so does the process of conditioning begun at birth. What effect does education have on our ideas of proper masculine feminine behaviour? And how do our ideas about how we should behave affect the education we get? (Demoor, W. 1973)

Results of post-tests A:

Concerning text 1,
. 6 students did the post-tests.
. All of them produced a good register analysis of the text.
. Only 3 of them produced an adequate translation.
. The translations of the other 3 were faulty on many accounts.

Surprisingly, the student who produced the best register analysis was the one who made the worst translation. This comes as a surprise since it was initially assumed that register analysis would help students overcome some major translation problems and thereby lead to an acceptable translation.

Concerning text 2,
. 8 students did the post-test
. 7 of them produced a good register analysis of the ST.
. 4 of them got average marks for their translations.
. 2 of them got below average marks.
. Only 1 student produced a quite good translation.

Interpretation of the results:

One can conclude from the above results that the students' awareness of the social context of the ST alone does not guarantee the production of a good translation. Register analysis can help students avoid certain translation problems connected with the degree of formality, the complexity or simplicity of the mode and the use of the appropriate terminology; however, there still remain other translation problems in their work which are related to other aspects of meaning both in the ST and the TT: (word and phrase meaning, idiomatic meaning, pragmatic meaning and semiotic meaning) and to difficulties in composing in the TL. In addition to all this, one has to take into account the general paucity of their top-down knowledge.

B) Translation 1 + Register Analysis + Translation 2:

The texts used for this post-test are given below:

TEXT 1: ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This is my first book and, in writing it, I have learned – somewhat to my surprise – just how much of a collective undertaking a book really is. Whilst I must accept final responsibility for any errors of fact or interpretation that remain, I owe a real debt of thanks to those who commented on the book during the various stages of its production and, in so doing, helped me to remove at least some of its weaknesses. (Bennett, T. 1979)

TEXT 2: GENERAL EDITOR'S PREFACE

It is easy to see that we are living in a time of rapid and radical social change. It is much less easy to grasp the fact that such change will inevitably affect the nature of those disciplines that both reflect our society and help to shape it.

Yet this is nowhere more apparent than in the central field of what may, in general terms, be called literary studies. Here, among large numbers of students at all levels of education, the erosion of the assumptions and presuppositions that support the literary disciplines in their conventional form has proved fundamental. Modes and categories inherited from the past no longer seem to fit the reality experienced by a new generation. (Bennett, T. 1979)

TEXT 3: Interferon

Interferon- Immediate Effects

Interferon is a protein, a natural substance produced by many cells in the body in response to some stimulus, such as a virus. Interferon has been called the body's Paul Revere. When it is released by cells that are under siege from a virus, interferon spreads to other cells to prepare them for attack by stimulating the production of what are called anti-viral proteins.

Interferon – Remote Effects

In the last few years interferon has been produced artificially by use of the techniques of genetic engineering. It is too early to know whether interferon will be effective in preventing virus infections, such as herpes, but there is "guarded optimism" for the use of interferon in the treatment of hepatitis B. (Neufeld, J. K. 1987)

Text 1:

7 students did the post-test following the three stages of execution in B.

The students' marks for translation 1 and translation 2 were strikingly quite similar, except for one student (7), whose translation 2 was far better than translation 1.

The register analysis marks were average or just above average, except for student 7.

Students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Translation 1	10*	14	10	11	11	11	12
Register analysis	10	12	11	12	10	11	14
Translation 2	10	14	10	11	11	10	14

* these marks are out of 20

Text 2:

6 students did the post-test.

The students' marks for translations 1 and 2 were once again quite similar.

The register analysis marks were quite good.

Students	1	2	3	4	5	6
Translation 1	11	11	12	11	12	12
Register analysis	11	11	12	13	12	12
Translation 2	12	11	12	11	12	12

Text 3:

6 students did the post-test

The students' marks for translations 1 and 2 were on the whole similar, except for students 1 and 2.

The register analysis marks were good (students 1 and 2) and very good (students 3, 5 and 6)

Students	1	2	3	4	5	6
Translation 1	10	10	11	13	14	12
Register analysis	12	12	14	12	14	14
Translation 2	12	12	11	13	14	12

Interpretation of the results:

The purpose of the execution of post-test B was to compare T1 (done without register analysis) and T2 (done with a preliminary register analysis) in order to find out if register analysis does indeed lead to a better translation.

Concerning Text 1, "acknowledgements", and text 2, "the preface", there were almost no differences in marks between translation texts 1 and translation texts 2. Only in text 3 did two students show some noticeable improvement.

One may therefore be tempted to draw the following conclusion: register analysis, alone, does not lead to a translation text of a high quality. Being well aware of the situational linguistic features of the ST, as the students' register analysis marks seemed to indicate, is not enough. There are indeed other causes for their translation problems, as it was seen in the execution post-test A above, which also have to be considered.

Interviews:

All the students interviewed (including those who did not take the post-test) were unanimous as to the positive role played by register analysis in helping them understand the social context of the source text and develop a certain self-awareness which is necessary for building up self-confidence when it comes to taking certain translation decisions. However, only a few of them expressed the opinion that register analysis had no great influence on their translation decisions.

5.7.3 Pre-tests: Genre

The testees were asked to translate some texts in which the genre was felt to be handled differently in the TL. These texts were taken from an

Arabic newspaper, called al-Sabah and published in Morocco. They are all grouped under the heading أخبار الناس "News of the people". The first text is about a birth announcement ending with a congratulation message, the second is about a marriage announcement and also ending with a congratulation message, the third is about a death announcement ending with a message of condolence. The texts are given below (Texts 1, 2, 3). In addition to these texts, the testees were also asked to translate some dynamic texts in which there was a mixture of genres. The purpose was to sensitize them even further to this complex aspect of meaning and to get them to appreciate its degree of difficulty during the translation process. These dynamic texts are Texts 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9.

Text 1:

رزق محمد بفدن وحرمه بمدينة أكادير بمولود اختارا له اسم يوسف. وبهذه المناسبة السعيدة، يتقدم محمد المفراوتي نيابة عن الأصدقاء والمعارف بخالص التهاني لأسرتي المولود سائلين الله أن يديم عمره بين أحضان والديه

Text 2:

تم عقد قران الشاب علي رابح المهندس بشركة ليديك على الآنسة عزيزة هند الأستاذة بالمعهد العالي للتجارة، وذلك في حفل بهيج حضرته أسرتا العروسين. وبهذه المناسبة يتقدم عمال شركة ليديك بأحر التهاني للعروسين، راجين من الله أن يرزقهما ذرية صالحة.

Text 3:

" يا أيتها النفس المطمئنة ارجعي إلى ربك راضية مرضية فادخلي في عبادي وادخلي جنتي ".

انتقل إلى جوار ربه عن سن يناهز 76 سنة السيد محمد الطاهري وذلك بعد مرض عضال لم ينفع معه علاج. وبهذه المناسبة الأليمة يتقدم أعضاء جريدة المنتخب بتعازيهم الحارة لأسرة الفقيد وكذا أصدقائه، راجين من الله عزوجل أن يتغمده برحمته وأن يدخله جناته، وأن يلهم ذويه الصبر والسلوان " وإنا لله وإنا إليه لراجعون ".

Text 4:

النشرة الجوية

لقد سجل مقياس التقوى انخفاضا كبيرا في مستوى الإيمان، وهذا راجع إلى شدة البرودة التي عمت معظم القلوب، كما عرفت جميع مناطق العالم الإسلامي هبوب رياح قوية محملة بالفساد والإباحية، آتية من الغرب وأمريكا.

وعن طريق الصور التي أخذناها من القرآن الكريم والسنة النبوية، لاحظنا تشكل غيوم من الفتن المظلمة غطت سماء الأمة الإسلامية، كما عرفت بعض البراكين النائمة نشاطا في الآونة الأخيرة، حيث تفجرت بحمم من الأحقاد والنزاعات بين المسلمين.

أما توقعاتنا ليوم غد، إن شاء الله، سينقشع ضباب الجهل والتخلف عن سماء الأمة، ويسود صفاء المحبة والوئام جميع أرجاء البلاد، ما إن تمسكنا بكتاب الله وسنة رسوله صلى الله عليه وسلم.

وأخيرا ننصح جميع المسلمين بأن يرتدوا لباس التقوى ويحملوا مظلات الإيمان، وحتى لا يصابوا ببرودة الغفلة عن الله عزوجل ومرض قسوة القلب.

و السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

Text 5

عزز الزميل عبد اللطيف فدواش، رئيس القسم الرياضي بجريدة المنظمة طاقم أسرته الصغيرة بمولودة جميلة اختار لها من الأسماء ريم. وبهذه المناسبة السعيدة تتقدم جريدة " المنتخب " بأحر التهاني لعائلتي فدواش وحرمه لطيفة تيكي آملين أن يستأنس الصغير بدر بهذا الوافد الجديد الذي سيضفي بلا شك دفئا على الأسرة بكاملها.

Text 6:

بدون رجعة قرر محسن جبور تطليق العزوبية وذلك بعقد قرانه على العروسة الحسناء سناء الصيام التي وضعت عليه شباكها وسط أهازيج الأهل والأحباب والخلان. ألف مبروك لمحسن وسناء مع دوام السعادة والأفراح.

Text 7:

الحديقة جنات تجري من تحتها الأحزان ، ويعبرها نهر خفي يسبح فيه الكل سواء بسواء، لا فرق بين أبيض وأسود، ولا بين الذكر والأنثى، بل للذكر فيها مثل حظ الأنثى الواحدة.

Text 8:

لكنهم يسكنون العاصمة. العاصمة فيها كل شيء.
فيها الوزارات،
وفيها البارات،
وفيها المساجد والفيلات،
وفيها الحدائق والكليات،
وفيها الفقراء والطوبيس والكعبة، وما أدراك ما الكعبة. الكعبة نعمة من عند الله ليبقى الكل سواسية.

Text 9:

أسير ملتوي القامة، حاني الهامة، أشكر السآمة، وفي جيبي بعض ما تبقى من سوانيت القيامة.

Evaluation:

The first three texts above represent three types of speech genres which are fairly public. Apart from their conventional forms of writing and the particular way in which they are structured, the three Arabic newspaper announcements display another peculiar feature, namely adding a message of congratulation or condolence just after the announcement. In English, such messages constitute in themselves separate genres realized in the form of letters from one person to another. Congratulating or condoling in a paper, as I have been informed by some British native speakers, is uncommon.

The choice of these texts was dictated by a desire to confront the testees with texts which contain some culture specific signs and then see how they would cope with them when translating. It was expected that these cultural signs would constitute a major challenge for them since it is quite difficult to find their TL equivalents.

The number of students taking the pre-test was 10. Just as expected, the testees' translations of these different speech genres showed a variety of lexical, grammatical and semantic problems, in addition to an awkward style of writing. Most of these problems could be ascribed to a lack of a translation strategy on the part of the testees. Their aim was to translate the words on the page, hence the excessive literalness and lack of any concern for the target readers' expectations. Following are samples of some of the testees' faulty translations which are indicated by the use of asterisks and underlines.

Text 1:

Translation a)

**The city Agadir has witnessed the birth of a new baby of Mr Mohamed Bafadan* and his wife. Youssef was the name chosen for this new born baby. On this happy occasion and on behalf of his friends and his relatives, Mr Mohamed TAFRAOUTI sends his good wishes to the parents of the *new born, **willing best regards and good education to the *new born* and his parents.

Translation b)

Mohamed Bafadan and his wife in Agadir were blessed with a child whose name they chose to be **Joseph*. On this happy event, Mohamed TAFRAOUTI, on behalf of his friends and acquaintances, sends his congratulations to the family of the new born baby asking God to **lengthen his lifetime* in **the arms of his parents*.

Text 2:

Translation a)

In the Hilton Hotel, the wedding of both Mr Ali RABAH, an engineer in Lydec and Miss Aziza Hind, a teacher at the High Institute of Commerce, took place. On this occasion, the workers of Lydec **express best wishes and a happy life* to the new couple. *(*OMISSION*)

Translation b)

In the Hilton Hotel, the marriage of Ali RABEH, an engineer in Lydec company **with an* employee in the High Institute of Commerce **was contracted*. On this occasion, the staff of Lydec Company **display* their cordial congratulations to the new couple **hoping from God to bless* them with good children.

Text 3:

Translation a)

After struggling for a long time against a fatal disease, Mr Mohamed TAHIRI has passed away *(kicked the bucket). On this sorrowful occasion, the members of the al-Mountakhab newspaper **condole the family* of Mr TAHIRI, **willing him* to be at the mercy of Allah.

Translation b):

**At the age of 76*, Mohamed TAHIRI passed away after a long struggle with an incurable disease. **By this sad event*, the staff of the newspaper al-Montakab display their hearty condolence to the family of the deceased asking God to be merciful towards him and to grant his family patience. *And* we are to God and to him we will return.

In general, the testees' translations were characterized by the following:

1. Lack of knowledge of the genre structure. For example in the translation (a) of text 1, there is topicalization of the city where the baby is born and not the birth event.
2. Lack of consistency when translating cultural terms and expressions: ﷲ is translated * as God or transliterated as ALLAH.
3. Difficulties in translating Koranic verses and some culture-loaded words such as رًزق and حَرَمُه. The appeal to God at the end of each text is either incorrectly translated or simply left out.
4. Avoiding the translation of Koranic verses and culture specific terms.
5. Serious collocational problems.

One can conclude that, in addition to some language problems, the testees did not have a clear strategy concerning the translation of these genres.

Text 5 mixes the birth announcement genre with that of the sports news. The words عزز, طاقم اسرته and الوافد الجديد bring to mind the kind of language used by a sports news commentator, such as: عزز فريق الرجاء طاقم فريقه and استقبل الجمهور هذا اللاعب و الوافد الجديد بالتصفيق

Text 6 uses a certain language, which is evocative of a legal text and a marriage announcement genre: بدون رجعة قرر فلان تطليق العزوبية The function of this transplanting is undoubtedly to cause a certain comic effect and to introduce an element of cheerfulness.

Texts 7, 8 and 9 are extracts from a collection of short stories entitled المحارب و الاسلحة “The Fighter and the Weapons” by Bachir El Kamari, a Moroccan writer. In these stories, the writer sometimes imitates Koranic style when describing a certain place, as in Texts 7 and 8, in order to express a certain attitude. In Text 9, he borrows the language of an old literary Arabic genre called المقامات (al-maqaamaat) to describe the capital city and his own situation. This kind of genre is marked by the extensive rhyming of its words.

With regard to the translation of the texts (4 to 9), the testees were on the whole successful in relaying the dynamism of texts 4, 5 and 6 as they attempted to use equivalent vocabulary items and similar metaphoric expressions which point to the non-static character of these texts. However, with respect to texts 7, 8 and 9, the testees seem to encounter great difficulties in rendering these texts. Thus, the Koranic distinctive features were absent and so were the special phonetic characteristics of al-maqaamaat. Below are the translations produced by some of the testees:

Text 4:

Student 1

The temperature of piety has noticed a big decrease at the level of faith. This is due to the intensity of coldness which has overwhelmed the majority of hearts. Moreover, the Islamic World has witnessed the blowing of a strong wind carrying corruption and permissiveness from the West and America.

From the pictures which we took from the Koran and Sunna, we have noticed the appearance of clouds filled with subversion and covering the sky of the Islamic nation … Concerning our expectations for tomorrow, the fog of ignorance and backwardness will, God willing, clear up and the serenity of love will reign throughout the land if we stick to the holy Koran and the Sunna of His messenger, peace be upon him. Finally, we advise all Muslims to wear the clothes of piety and carry the umbrellas of faith so as not to catch the coldness of unwariness from the path of God and so as to avoid the harshness of the heart.

Text 5:

Student 2

Mr FADWASH, the head of the sport's department in the Monaddama newspaper, has reinforced the crew of his small family with the birth of a beautiful girl for whom he chose the name of Rim. On this happy occasion, all the members of the Monaddama newspaper congratulate the families of Mr FADWASH and his wife Latifa TIKI.

Text 6:

Student 3

Mohcin JABBOUR has irrevocably decided to divorce celibacy and get married to the beautiful Sanaa ESSIAM. Best wishes to the new couple and a long happy life.

Text 7:

Student 4

The garden is a paradise under which sorrows are flowing and it is crossed by an invisible river in which everyone is swimming equally. There is no difference between a white person and a black person or between a male and a female. In fact, one male has the same share as the one the girl has.

Text 8

Student 5

There is everything in the capital: ministries, buildings, mosques, villas, gardens, universities, poor people, buses and walking. Everyone knows what walking means. Walking is a blessing from God so that all people remain equal.

Text 9:

Student 6

I walk with a twisted and bending stature and, complaining of boredom and in my pockets what has been left of the keys of the afterlife.

Interview:

After the pre-test, the students were asked the following questions:

1) Did you find any difficulty translating the STs?
2) What strategy did you follow in translating the STs?
3) Are you familiar with the parallel or equivalent TTs for the first three STs?
4) Are you confident about your translations?

5) What were your reactions to texts 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9?

Concerning the first question, all the students interviewed said that the STs, although apparently easy, were in fact difficult because of the culture-specific items they contained. As for the second question, they all answered that they were not aware that any strategy did exist for handling these types of texts. With regard to question 3, they, likewise, denied having come across English texts belonging to these particular genres. As for question 4, they all admitted they did not feel very confident about their renderings.

Concerning questions 5 and 6, the majority of the testees thought that all the dynamic texts (4 to 9) struck them as rather odd because of the language used. As a result, they all admitted to having felt that they would face problems translating them. Among the problems they mentioned when translating these texts, the following are cited:

1. difficulties in the translation of culture specific words and expressions as well as some formulaic phrases
2. difficulties in the translation of metaphoric expressions
3. difficulties in the translation of the language of the Koran
4. difficulties in the translation of some non-conventional forms of language as in texts 4, 7 and 8
5. difficulties in finding equivalents for some words which are rhymed as in text 9

Lecture:

Before giving a lecture on genre and its translation, the students were handed over some English texts which were considered to be parallel to the first three STs in the pre-test in that they were about the same social situation. The purpose of this activity was first to push the students to compare these texts and try to identify and describe the patterns of the genres to which they belong; second, to prepare them for the lecture. Some of the English parallel texts, taken from the Times newspaper, are given below:

English text 1 parallel to Arabic text 1:

Births

ANDERSON On January 16th 2006, to Giles and Philippa (née Brooks), a daughter, Isabella Clementine, a sister for Elizabeth and Camille

Marriage announcement

The marriage took place on Saturday 1st April at St. Andrews Church Kensington between John Robert Smith of London, eldest son of Mr and Mrs Peter Smith of Edinburgh and Katherine Jane Jones of London, second daughter of Mr and Mrs John Jones of Cardiff. The bride was attended by Miss Katherene Smith and Miss Anabel Meers. Mr Anthony Philips was Best Man. The honeymoon is being spent in Jamaica.

English text 3 parallel to Arabic text 3:

Deaths

FRYE Jeanne (née Haighton). Much loved wife of the late Clarence Hugo Frye, passed away Sunday 22nd January. Funeral at Putney Vale Crematorium 3 pm Monday 30th January. Flowers welcome or donations to Royal Brompton Hospital.

After having compared the texts, a discussion ensued concerning the characteristics of these genres in the ST and in the translation. More specifically, the discussion focused on the following points:

a. Content: what content is included and what content is excluded?
b. Rhetorical appeals: what appeals to pathos and ethos appear?
c. Structure: what are the different sections of the genre and how are they organized?
d. Layout: the way the genre is presented and its length.
e. Sentences: the types of sentences present in the different genres.
f. Diction: choice of words used and their frequency.

The students were then given a lecture on genre and its translation (see Appendix E). The lecture, which covers the points listed below, is based on the insights of translation scholars such as House (1997), Hatim & Mason (1990) (1997), Bakhtin (1986), Haddad (1995) and Bex (1996).

The points dealt with include:

- Definition of genre
- Genre and culture
- Genre and register

- Genre and areas of human activity
- Speech genres in everyday life
- The psychological reality of genres
- The relevance of genre to translation
- The translation of genre

5.7.4 Post-tests: Genre

The ten students were asked to re-translate the pre-test texts using either an overt or a covert translation. However, some students translated the texts using a combination of the two types. Following are sample translations by one of the students:

Translation A of pre-text 1: (an overt translation)

God has given Mr Mohamed BAFDIN and his spouse in Agadir a son for whom they chose the name of Youssef. On this happy occasion, Mr Aziz TAFRAOUTI would like to give his congratulations to the family of the newborn asking God to grant him a long life under the protection of his family.

Comment: The student has included the congratulation in his translation and has translated the appeal to God to grant a long life to the baby.

Translation B of pre-text 1: (a covert translation).

BAFDIN, to Mohamed and his wife, a son, Youssef.

Comment: Contrary to what happens in English birth announcements, where the date of birth is mentioned along with the mother's maiden name, the covert translation produced lacks these elements in the covert translation above. In addition, the message of congratulation and the appeal to God are left out. Nevertheless, the testee has demonstrated that he is trying to meet the target readers' expectations.

Translation A of pre-text 2: (an overt translation)

The young man Ali RABAH has been united to the young girl Aziza HIND a teacher in the High Institute of Commerce. The wonderful ceremony was attended by the families of the couple.

Comment: Neither the congratulation nor the appeal to God is translated.

Translation B of pre-text 2: (a covert translation)

The young Ali RABAH has been united to the young girl Aziza, a teacher in the High Institute of Commerce. The ceremony was attended by the families of the couple.

Comment: Neither the congratulation nor the appeal to God is translated. The congratulation is not translated and neither is the appeal to God.

Translation A of Text 3: (an overt translation)

DEATHS

Mr Mohamed TAHIRI has joined God at the age of 76 after suffering from a terminal disease for which medicine was of no avail. On this sad occasion, Mr Khalid SLIMANI would like to extend his condolences to the family of the deceased, asking God to be merciful on him, to grant him access to His paradise and to give his family patience and solace. «We are to God and to Him we shall return».

Comment: The student has translated the verses of the Koran and the appeal to God.

Translation B of Text 3: (a covert translation)

Deaths:

TAHIRI Mohamed, aged 76 after a long illness

Comment: The student does not begin and end his translation with verses from the Koran. He also does not make the appeal to God.

Something else is also missing in this translation, namely the date of death, which is normally present in an English death announcement genre.

With regard to the post-test translations of the dynamic texts (4 to 9), the testees managed, on the whole, to translate the dynamic words and expressions in texts 4, 5 and 6 allowing the reader, to a certain extent, to have a glimpse of the mixing of genres and the hijacking of words. As for texts 7, 8 and 9 the testees were simply not able to relay the Koranic style of the text, nor the rhymed words of al-maqaamaat. This was quite understandable given the complex nature of these texts.

Nonetheless, by being aware of the complexity of these texts and by admitting their inability to translate them as they should, the students came to appreciate the limitation of their translations and to recognize the daunting task that faces the translator in his or her work. This in itself is an important outcome that is in line with the goals of the translation training experiment.

Evaluation:

Compared with their pre-test translations, the post-test translations of Texts 1, 2 and 3 produced by the students are far better. On the whole, they all demonstrate a certain degree of awareness of the requirements of translating particular speech genres; the students seem to know what they are doing while translating whether overtly or covertly. As a consequence, they all received better marks.

Interview:

All the testees were asked one main question: What differences did you find between your pre-test and post-test translations? Their answers can be summarized as follows:

Before the lecture and the overt-covert exercises, we did not have a clear idea of how best to translate these speech genres. Subsequently, however, we felt we could deal with the translation of genres more confidently. We now know that different languages do not always share the same language and structural features for a particular genre. Because of this, we need to read more widely and familiarize ourselves with the various texts representing different ST and TT genres. More specifically, we need to be aware of those TTs within a given genre which are parallel to some STs within corresponding genres.

5.7.5 Pre-tests and post-tests: text types

Pre-test: Instructional text type (a declaration preamble)

The testees were asked to translate the following English declaration preamble*:

The World Conference to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, having met at Geneva from14 to 25 August 1978 in accordance with General Assembly Resolution 32/129, recalling that the Charter of the United Nations is based on the principles of the dignity and equality of all human beings, further recalling the designation by the General Assembly of the period beginning on 10 December 1973 as the Decade for Action to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, noting further with the gravest concern that racism, racial discrimination and apartheid, which continue to afflict the world, are crimes against the conscience and dignity of mankind, solemnly declares:

any doctrine of racial superiority is scientifically false, morally condemnable, socially unjust and dangerous, and has no justification whatsoever.

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Evaluation:

The number of students taking this pre-test was 23. However, only one student produced a successful translation. This student, in fact, was one of the best in the group.

Interview:

When asked to report on what she did in order to produce such an excellent work, the student answered that this type of text was not unfamiliar to her since she had already heard it on the radio and seen it on T.V.

Lecture: (based on Hatim (1997 b)

In the lecture, the following points were discussed:

- The general characteristics of the legal document: non-emotiveness, texture, the structure formats…
- The different text forms falling within the legal document. For example, the resolution, the treaty, the convention, the declaration…
- The different parts of a legal document: the preamble, the initial article, the set of articles and the concluding article
- The kind of language used for each part: formulaic expressions, domain specific vocabulary, a close-knit texture
- The translation approach to be adopted
- The role of the translator

Post-test: Instructional text type

Evaluation:

The students were asked to re-translate the English declaration preamble into Arabic. The number of students taking part in the pre-test was 25. Out of these, 20 produced successful translations.

Interview:

When asked about the process through which a good translation was possible, the 20 students on the whole referred to relying on the distinctive features of preambles in Arabic legal texts. These features consist of formulaic expressions, the use of special vocabulary and above all the structuring of the text. They also said that they followed a literal approach in which they tried to stay as close to the ST as possible.

A verification post-test:

The students were given an English Convention Preamble to translate into Arabic. The purpose was to verify if they have internalized the specific language features of this kind of texts. The convention preamble is given below.

Draft Convention on the Law of the Sea

The states parties to this convention, prompted by the desire to settle, in a spirit of mutual understanding and co-operation, all issues relating to the law of the sea, conscious that the problems of ocean space are closely interrelated and need to be considered as a whole, recognizing the desirability of establishing, through the Convention, and with due regard for the sovereignty of all States, a legal order for the seas and oceans which would facilitate international communication, bearing in mind that the achievement of such goals will contribute to the realization of a just and equitable international economic order which would take into account the interest and needs of mankind as a whole and, in particular, the special interests and needs of developing countries, whether coastal or land-locked, affirming that matters not regulated by this Convention continue to be governed by rules and principles of general international law, have agreed as follows:

Part I
Use of Terms
Article 1
Use of terms …

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Evaluation:

Number of students taking the verification test: 25
Number of successful translations: 24

Conclusion:

The students are aware of the specific features of the preamble in both English and Arabic and can translate both ways more confidently.

Pre-text: Expository text type (an entity-oriented report)

The students were asked to translate the following text:

Report on the general debate

The United Nations Conference on Technical Co-operation among Developing Countries was held at Buenos Aires from 30 to 12 September 1978. The Conference was opened by the Secretary- General of the United Nations. Representatives of States- many of them of ministerial rank- , observers for a number of inter-governmental bodies and representatives of specialized agencies, regional commissions and other UN bodies, programmes and offices attended by special invitation and took part in the work of the Conference.

Opening the general debate at the afternoon meeting on 30 August 1978, the Secretary-General of the Conference said he was convinced that the Conference would lay the foundations for enhancing all forms of co-operation among developing countries and for transforming relationships for the benefit of the entire world community. The success of the Conference would depend on the extent of the commitment of governments to the concept and promotion of technical co-operation among developing countries; evidence of their commitment was the fact that national reports had been received from more than 100 governments. Further evidence of the importance attached by governments to the Conference was the fact that their delegations included outstanding personalities and experts in the subject. The Secretary-General of the Conference expressed his appreciation of the special contributions made by the governments of Iraq, Kuwait and Qatar towards the costs of participation of specially financially disadvantaged countries.

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the pre-test: 13
- Number of successful translations: 4

The unsuccessful translations were mainly characterized by a tendency to switch to the nominal sentence, sometimes starting with إنّ with the result that the translation became overly evaluative and thus rather less objective. Thus, for example, the sentence: “The success of the Conference would depend on the extent of the commitment of…” was translated either as نجاح المؤتمر يعتمد على مدى التزام: or إن نجاح المؤتمر يعتمد على مدى التزام

Interview: The students who produced a correct translation did not clearly state what kind of steps they followed in their translation. This lack of self-awareness on the part of the translation trainees is one of the main problems which the translation experiment has sought to address.

Lecture:

In the lecture, the following points were discussed:

- The general characteristics of expository texts: a certain degree of emotiveness, a certain structure format, the predominance of certain syntactic features, a looser texture…
- The different texts forms falling within the exposition text type: the synopsis, the summary, the abstract, the report, the news report

- The structure format of an expository text: setting the scene and then presenting its various aspects
- The translation approach to be adopted
- The role of the translator

Post-test: Re-translation into Arabic of the English report

Evaluation:
- Number of students taking the test:13
- Number of students producing a correct translation:10

Interview:
The students who produced a correct translation maintained that they had invoked various relevant contextual factors, and more particularly, their knowledge of the expository text type. For the latter, they stressed, there was usually a lack of emotiveness and a scarcity of subordinate clauses and nominal sentences. On the other hand, they added, there was frequent use of coordination.

A Verification Post-Test: Translation of two entity-oriented texts

Text 1:

Scottish Development Agency

The Agency was set up in 1975 as the government's principal instrument of industrial and economic development in Scotland. As well as its own wide-ranging powers to invest directly in new enterprise, it provides factory space and industrial management advice. The Agency also acts as a central Scottish information bureau for international business and guides other organizations, particularly about industrial plant location and development. Head office: 120 Bothwell Street, Glasgow.

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Text: 2

تقرير عن المؤتمر التربوي الثامن عشر

تحت شعار " التربية في الوطن العربي ومقومات الإنسان الصالح " افتتح وزير التربية وزير التعليم العالي بالوكالة المؤتمر التربوي الثامن عشر الذي أقامته جمعية المعلمين الكويتية في الفترة من 26 إلى 31 مارس.

واستهل الحفل بتلاوة آيات عطرة من الذكر الحكيم، ثم ألقى بعد ذلك وزير التربية كلمة رحب فيها بضيوف المؤتمر وشكر فيها جمعية المعلمين نهجها هذا في عقد المؤتمرات التربوية.

ونوه السيد الوزير إلى أهمية موضوع المؤتمر حيث أنه يتناول أهداف التربية ويردها إلى اشتقاقها في شمول وتكامل وأشار إلى أن مقومات الإنسان الصالح تتحد في خمسة منطلقات هي طبيعة المجتمع العربي المسلم ومواجهة تحديات العصر وجعل الإنسان محور العملية التربوية وأهمية دراسة الفكر التربوي المعاصر وحاجة المجتمع العربي إلى نهوض أبنائه به وتفاعلهم معه. وأضاف أن هذا المؤتمر يعتبر دعوة للتمسك بوحدة الأمة وفيه مواضيع متعددة تؤدي إلى توحيد الجهود والتعاون على سبيل الخير. وقال أن الأمم لا تنهض إلا إذا غرست قيمة العمل في نفوس أبنائها وربت الإنسان على الاعتماد على نفسه في كسب الرزق.

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the test: 15
- Number of successful translations: 15

Conclusion:

Once they were shown the features usually associated with the entity-oriented exposition text type, the students were more conscious of what they were doing, and their translations were much more acceptable.

Pre-test: Argumentative text-type (through-argumentation)

The testees were asked to translate the following English text into Arabic:

The best schools are those that teach children to be their own masters, willing and capable to work, rather than to be good and obedient only as long as they are under control. Children must be taught to become men who will not need to be watched in everyday life, and they should be educated in such a manner as to be capable of mastering themselves.

Thus, the way to freedom always leads from education to self-education. It is therefore the main task of every educator to emancipate his students, to open up new prospects for them, to teach them how to learn, work and create rather than to fill their heads with ready-made clichés and stereotypes. The only must for a teacher is the capacity to transmit and communicate, the capacity to use metaphors that will present new knowledge to the pupils in as vivid and concrete form as possible. School is not merely a preparation for later life, it is life itself in which students test their abilities and simultaneously become free.

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the test: 23
- Number of successful translations: 12

The students who produced successful translations had some problems identifying the thesis which, in this text, consists of two sentences.

After translating the first sentence using a nominal sentence structure introduced by the particle ان, almost all the testees switched to a verbal sentence structure for the translation of the second sentence of the thesis, thus breaking the flow of the thesis and impeding a smooth transition to the arguments developing this thesis. The following sample translations of the beginning of the text by two students clearly illustrate this unsuccessful rendering; the texts are cited by Hatim (1997 b):

Translation 1:

إن أفضل المدارس هي تلك التي تعد الأولاد ليكونوا معلمي أنفسهم، وتزرع فيهم الإرادة والقدرة على العمل بدلا من أن يكونوا ودعاء مطيعين ماداموا في حضرة المربي.

كما ينبغي تعليم الأولاد كيف يصبحوا رجالا دون الحاجة إلى مراقبتهم، وينبغي أيضا تربيتهم بشكل يمكنهم من السيطرة على أنفسهم.

Translation 2:

قد نجد أن أحسن المدارس هي التي تلقن الأطفال تربية أنفسهم وتمنحهم الرغبة والقدرة على العمل بدلا من أن يكونوا ودعاء ومطيعين ماداموا في حضرة المربي. يجب على الأطفال أن يتعلموا كيف يصبحون رجالا دون الحاجة إلى مراقبتهم يوميا، وكما أنه يجب عليهم أن يربوا على هذا النهج ليستطيعوا تعليم أنفسهم.

Interview:

The students who produced successful translations were unable to verbalise clearly their thoughts concerning the processes and strategies resorted to in the translation. The students who got it wrong could not understand why I had marked their translations, especially the thesis chunk, as wrong. For them, the translation was good and needed no further comment.

Lecture: (through-argumentation)

The following points were tackled in the lecture:

- The different types of argumentative texts
- The characteristics of an argumentative text type
- The constituent parts of a through-argumentative text along with its linguistic characteristics
- The translation approach to be adopted
- The role of the translator

Post-test:

The students were asked to retranslate the pre-test English text into Arabic.

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the test: 23
- Number of successful translations: 21

Interview:

This time nearly all the students were able to verbalize their thoughts coherently regarding the strategies they adopted when translating into Arabic.

In answer to the question: “What did you do to produce a good translation?” they answered that they had invoked their knowledge of the structure of through- argumentation, i.e. a thesis cited and then followed by arguments to support it.

Verification test:

The students were asked to translate another text of the through-argumentation type into English. The text is given below:

تعقيبا على مقال فهمي هويدي " هكذا خدعونا في مسألة البوسنة " أود أن أضيف بعض النقاط المكملة للموضوع. مما لا شك فيه أن قضية البوسنة والهرسك هي امتداد لسلسلة الصراع الأوربي بين الإسلام والغرب. بل أكاد أقول أنها صليبية القرن العشرين وصدى لفزع الغرب الرهيب من انتشار وتقدم الإسلام واكتساحه لأوربا، خصوصا بعد انهيار الشيوعية، لذلك لا نندهش كثيرا إذا ما رأينا دول الغرب العظمى تتخذ بعض المواقف التي يصفها الكاتب بالتخاذل واللامبالاة تجاه مسلمي البوسنة والهرسك، وتمييع الأمور بالتصريحات والنداءات الجوفاء التي لا تحرك ساكنا ولا تروع ظالما.

فحقيقة الأمر أن جميع الدول الأوربية بطريقة أو بأخرى تشارك في صنع هذه المجزرة البشرية موهمة العالم بأنه صراع عرقي أو قومي، ومستغلة في نفس الوقت هذا الصراع لتذويب العناصر المسلمة في تلك البقعة من البلقان. فالآباء والأمهات يقتلون على أيدي الصرب والأبناء ينصرون في ملاجئ ومعسكرات أوربا، فالمصلحة مشتركة والعدو واحد وما تلك المساعدات الغذائية إلا مسكنات للضمير العالمي والعربي والإسلامي لكي لا يجاهر ويندد ويستنكر موقف تلك الدول.

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the test: 15
- Number of successful translations: 15

Conclusion:

Having gained some knowledge about the structure of the through-argumentation text type, the students were not only able to translate correctly, but they were also able to justify their translations.

Pre-test: Argumentative text type (explicit counter-argument)

The testees were asked to translate the following texts into Arabic:

> Despite its many faults, I should not like to suggest that I regret the appearance of this book, or to deny that it will have its uses. Contemporary Turkish literature and thought are so little known outside Turkey that any book which opens a window upon this culture for those who do not know the language is to be welcomed. When viewed in this light, the inaccuracies and confusions in the present work are considerably outweighed by the large mass of authentic and interesting information which the author has assembled.

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the test: 23
- Number of successful translations: 5

Although the students producing unsuccessful translations indicated that they were aware of the essential elements of the explicit counter-argumentative structure, namely, the presence of a signal of concession, a thesis, a counter-thesis and a conclusion, they manifested a lack of awareness of the fourth element of structure, namely, substantiation. The latter was translated into Arabic without a linking word such as ف or ذلك ان, which would have shown its logical connection to the precedent structural elements. To illustrate this point, two sample translations by two students are given below:

Translation 1:

بالرغم مما يحتويه هذا الكتاب من أخطاء وعيوب كثيرة، فإنني لا أتمنى أن يسيء الآخرون فهمي ويفسرون كلامي هذا على أنه أسف عن ظهور هذا الكتاب أو أنه إنكار لما فيه من مزايا، كون الفكر والأدب المعاصرين لا يعرفان انتشارا كثيرا خارج تركيا سيجعل أي كتاب يسلط الضوء على هذه الحضارة ويعرف بها شيئا مرحبا به.

Translation 2:

على الرغم من أخطائه، لا أحبذ أن أقول أنني أتأسف على ظهور هذا الكتاب أو أنكر أنه سوف تكون له منافع كثيرة. نلاحظ أن الأدب والفكر التركي المعاصر لا يلقى انتشارا واسعا خارج تركيا.

In addition to being unaware of the substantiation element, one student changed the unmarked word order of the thesis and counter-thesis, thus relegating the thesis to a secondary position and producing a slight change in emphasis:

لن اعبر عن ندمي لظهور هذا الكتاب، بالرغم من عيوبه. يعتبر الأدب التركي المعاصر
ذا صيت محدود خارج تركيا.

Interview:

The students who produced a successful translation said that they resorted to their knowledge of how to write argumentative essays in English.

Lecture:

The following points were dealt with:

- The constituent parts of an explicit counter-argument: a signal of concession, a thesis cited to be opposed, a counter-thesis, substantiation and a conclusion
- The characteristics of the language used
- The role of the translator

Post-test:

The testees were asked to retranslate the pre-test text.

Evaluation:

- Number of students: 20
- Number of successful translations: 19

Interview:

One of the students who managed to produce a successful translation after failing to do so the first time said: “In the post-test translation, I made use of my awareness of text types, more particularly, the counter-argumentative text type. For this type, a specific text structure and a specific texture are necessary.”

Pre-test: Argumentative text type (suppressed counter-argument)

The testees were asked to translate the following text into Arabic:

Even today many theories of education hold that the main task of schools and educators consists in transmitting the acquired historical experience of mankind to the younger generation. Trstenjak was among the first to see that this notion was self-contradictory, because insistence on traditional experiences stifles the primal freedom-instinct among the young. Pupils treated as mechanical sponges, taking in all that they are told, will not be able to create anything new. Aware of this, in opposition to the authoritarian tradition to teaching, Trstenjak insisted on the importance of "learning how to learn", of conditioning the young to be creative and to act independently, instead of passively accumulating information to be mechanically reproduced in examinations.

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the pre-test: 20
- Number of successful translations: 9

The students who produced unsuccessful translations failed to signal the shift from the thesis to the counter-thesis. Below are some sample translations which illustrate the point:

Student 1:

حتى يومنا هذا عدة نظريات حول التربية بينت فكرة أن المهمة الأساسية للمدارس والمدرسين تتمحور حول نقل التجربة التاريخية المكتسبة للإنسانية إلى الجيل الصاعد. لقد كان ترستنياك من السباقين لمعرفة أن هذه الفكرة كانت متناقضة.

Student 2:

لحد الآن لازالت عدة نظريات في التربية تعتقد أن العمل الأساسي للمدارس والمربين يكمن في طريقة توصيل التجارب التاريخية التي اكتسبتها الإنسانية إلى الأجيال الصاعدة- ترستنياك يرى أن هذه الفكرة تعارض نفسها.

Student 3:

حتى أيامنا هذه لازالت نظريات في التربية تعتقد أن... في هذا الصدد كان الكاتب ترستنياك أول من توصل إلى أن هذه الفكرة تتعارض مع الواقع.

Student 4:

إلى يومنا هذا لازالت عدة نظريات للتربية تتبنى فكرة... وقد كان ترستنياك من الأوائل...

Interview:

The students' answers as to how they managed to translate successfully were this time clearer and more specific. They all reported invoking the distinctive features of counter-argumentative texts in both English and Arabic, including the omission of counter-argumentative signals in English texts and their necessary presence in Arabic texts.

Lecture:

In this lecture, the students’ attention is drawn to the fact that, unlike explicit counter- argumentation where the counter-argumentative signals are present, there are those counter-argumentative texts in which these signals are omitted or suppressed. In such situations, the students translating into Arabic are warned not to leave out these signals in Arabic since, in this language, they are normally unsuppressed.

Post-text:

The students were asked to translate the following English text into Arabic:

Existing studies of development in the Gulf region have mostly restricted their concern to one aspect of development. A substantial number of surveys of mineral resources, studies on the feasibility of individual projects or the effectiveness of existing undertakings (especially in the oil industry), and studies of the functioning and development of individual economies have been undertaken. There have also been studies dealing with individual social or political aspects of the development process. What is lacking is an overall perspective of development, integrating the political, social and economic aspects, providing some conception of the nature of the economies, societies and policies which are emerging in the Gulf, and assessing the options and alternatives which lie ahead. This study attempts, in an introductory manner, to supply such a perspective.

(Text cited by Hatim, B. 1997 b)

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the test: 20
- Number of successful translations: 19

Interview:

The students’ answers as to how they managed to translate successfully were this time clearer and more specific. They all reported invoking the distinctive features of counter-argumentative texts in both English and Arabic, including the omission of counter-argumentative signals in English texts and their necessary presence in Arabic texts.

5.7.6 Pre-tests and post-tests: discourse

Pre-texts: The discourse of news broadcasting

The following Arabic texts concerning news reports broadcast by different radio stations during the gulf war, are borrowed from Shunnaq (1994).

Text 1:

إن أحد الملاجئ الضخمة في ضواحي بغداد قد أصيب اليوم بعدد من القذائف مما أدى إلى مقتل وجرح مآت الأشخاص (عن راديو منتكارلو).

Text 2:

نقل صحفيون أجانب في بغداد إلى الموقع الذي قالت السلطات العراقية أنه ملجأ للمدنيين تعرض للقصف. (عن راديو صوت أمريكا)

Text 3:

قال مسؤولون عسكريون أمريكيون إن المبنى الذي أصيب في الغارة على بغداد الليلة الماضية مما أسفر على ما يبدو عن خسائر فادحة في الأرواح، كان مركزا للقيادة العسكرية لا كملجأ مدني كما يقول العراق. (عن راديو صوت أمريكا)

Evaluation:

Text 1:

- Number of students: 7
- Number of successful translations: 6

The student whose translation was erroneous introduced a change in the level of emotiveness of the source text by first fronting the reference to the victims and secondly by identifying the victims as Iraqis instead of the more abstract word "people". In this sense, it can be said that the student has changed the monitoring characteristic of the text and has used a managing approach. The student's translation is given below:

> "Hundreds of Iraqis were killed or injured today as bombs were thrown on one of the shelters in the suburbs of Baghdad".

However, in spite of the apparently neutral monitoring in this text, it can be argued that the text smacks of some insidious managing; the lack of specific details, such as the absence of the names for places and the exact number of victims, in addition to the use of an agentless passive, are all intended to add a veneer of abstractness to the reporting of these terrible events, thus lessening the impact of this military atrocity.

Text 2:

- Number of students: 7
- Number of successful translations: 2

The students who produced unsuccessful translations failed to translate the relative clause: الذي قالت السلطات العراقية أنه ملجأ للمدنيين in a way that would have assigned a value of skepticism to the verb قالت. Instead, the two students quite clearly stated that the shelter was indeed used by civilians. Here is a translation of one of these students:

> "Foreign reporters in Baghdad have been transported to the place that was a shelter for the civilians which the Iraqi authorities said it was bombarded".

Text 3:

- Number of students: 7
- Number of successful translations: 3

The unsuccessful translations had one main feature in common; they all omitted the translation of the prepositional phrase على ما يبدو which in this context carries a considerable weight as far as the speaker's / writer's attitude is concerned. The use of this expression in the ST was meant to play down the impact of this terrible massacre and to impute it to chance or to an invisible supernatural power, seeking thereby to be absolved from any blame. The student translators producing an unsuccessful translation have therefore failed to relay an important aspect of attitudinal meaning. Below is an example of an unsuccessful translation by one of the students:

> "Some American officials have said that the building, which was attacked in Baghdad last night and which resulted in the death or injury of a great number of people, was a military command base, not a shelter for civilians as the Iraqis have said."

Texts 4 and 5: The sensational discourse

The following two newspaper stories, which come from the Daily Star and the Guardian respectively, are about a man who was attacked by two dogs:

Text 4:

DOGS RIP MAN'S NOSE OFF
HORROR ATTACK!

> Cops shot two savage pit bull terriers yesterday after they gored a man's face to shreds. The escaped devil-dogs tore into shift worker Frank Tempest, 54, as he walked home at dawn. Shocked witnesses said the hell hounds RIPPED OFF his nose, MAULED his ear and TORE skin off his face. The dogs ambushed father-of-four Frank, and then

dragged him screaming along the road as he struggled to fight them off. Police sealed off the street and warned terrified neighbours to stay indoors as the marauding dogs savaged a cat to death. Then six police marksmen with automatic rifles blasted the dogs, believed to be a bitch and her pup, with a hail of bullets. One pit bull was shot dead; the other wounded and trailed for an hour before being killed.

Both had escaped from a house close to despatch loader Frank's home in Monk's Road Lincoln. Police refused to name the owner last night and said he would NOT face prosecution.

By Martin Stote, Daily Star, 9 May 1991
(Text cited by Carter, R. et al 1997)

Text 5:

Man critical after pit bull attack

A man was critically ill in hospital with facial injuries last night after being savaged by two pit bull terriers. Police shot dead one of the dogs.

Frank Tempest, aged 54, of Lincoln was attacked as he walked home from work. Police warned people to stay indoors as 20 police officers, six armed, hunted for the dogs. One animal was shot and the other destroyed. Describing Mr Tempest's injuries, a police spokesman said: 'You wouldn't recognize it as a human face- it is positively horrendous.' Police said the owner of the dogs could not be prosecuted as both were dead. Dame Janet Fookes, Conservative MP for Plymouth Drake, said the Government should introduce compulsory dog registration.

Guardian, 9 May 1991

(Text cited by Carter, R. et al 1997)

Evaluation:
Text 4:

- Number of students taking the test: 10
- Number of successful translations: 4

The source text is characterized by a predominance of active transitive verbs and the repetition of many verbs denoting violence: *shot*, *gored*, *ripped off*, *mauled*, *tore*, *dragged*, *savaged*, *and blasted*. The use of the active transitive verbs is intended to arouse a hostile attitude towards this breed of dogs. Thus, occupying the position of subject, in almost all the sentences of the text, immediately invites the reader to put the blame on them for what happened to the poor man. Moreover, the reiteration of verbs of the same type is meant to sensationalize and thereby fill the readers with feelings of abhorrence and disgust.

In fact, some newspapers attempt to act as opinion formers. That is, they try to present an ideologically biased representation of a piece of news through a clever use of the syntax of the language, which plays an important role in the way a text creates meaning. In the Daily Mirror's text above, the focus is on the verb and its participants.

Verbs can be divided, following Danuta Reah (1998: 74) into: a) those which require or do not require any participants and b) those which refer either to actions or to relations. Actional verbs are themselves divided into transactive verbs (having an agent or actor who causes the action, and someone or something that is affected by the action) and non-transactive verbs (having only an actor with no person or thing affected by the action). Relational verbs stand for the relationship between someone / something and a quality or an attribute; they can also indicate an equal state (Ibid).

By selecting a verb which has a particular syntactical configuration, the text producer can give the reader / listener a world representation which is ideologically slanted, i.e. are people or animals presented as actors or as receivers of action, or are they presented in terms of their acts or their attributes? The pit bulls appear as actors in many of the sentences in text 4 and the majority of these sentences are transactive in which these animals are actors.

In spite of their relative success in relaying the impact of the repeated verbs, the flawed translations came out as rather less hostile to the pit bulls because of the syntactic alterations the students made to the source text. Thus, the active structures in which the pit bulls occupied the positions of the real subject were changed into nominalizations. For example, "after they gored a man's face to shreds" is translated as:

" بعد تشويههما لوجه شخص "

Or

" بعدما تسببا في هلاك الرجل وتمزيق وجهه عن آخره "

and, "shocked witnesses said the hell hounds, ripped off his nose" is rendered as:

" أكد شهود عيان مرعوبين اقتلاع الكلاب لأنف الرجل "

Very frequently, the nominalizations are initiated with the verbs قام ب. For example:

قاما بتمزيق وجه رجل إلى قطع صغيرة.
قاما باقتلاع أنفه.
قاما بجره أرضا.

Evaluation:

Text 5:

- Number of students taking the text: 10
- Number of successful translations: 8

The unsuccessful translations failed to preserve the ST passive structures such as “was attacked, “was destroyed” in their translation, replacing them by nominalizations such as

مهاجمة، معرضة لهجوم، القضاء عليه

or an intransitive verb followed by a preposition; for example, تعرض لـ. As a result, the ferocity of the pit bull attacks was slightly toned down. Moreover, the expressive meanings of some verbs such as *was shot* and *was destroyed* were replaced by neutral and rather abstract verbs such as أصيبت. The following is an example of a translation by one of the students in which the ST attitudinal meaning is not preserved:

كان رجل في حالة خطيرة بعد مهاجمته من طرف كلبين من نوع بيت بول.
وقد تعرض فرانك تمبست والبالغ من العمر 54 سنة للهجوم وهو عائد للبيت من العمل...
أحد الكلبين أصيب بينما الآخر تم إمساكه والقضاء عليه.

Text 6:

The following text by Amnesty seeks to enlist the support of the reader through the use of very emotive vocabulary depicting pain and anguish (e.g. *barbecued alive*, *tied upside down with a fire lit beneath his head and electrodes sparking at his genitals*…), the repetition, no less than five times, of the utterance “it is the…” as a cohesive device and persuasion technique, and the confrontation of the helpless victims, who are designated by their names, and their torturers, who are referred to as anonymous groups: police, soldiers, troops, thus making them very frightening indeed.

Amnesty

The reason you join Amnesty is not words, but pain.

It's the pain of children like 16 year old Sevki Akinci, literally barbecued alive by Turkish soldiers who came to his village looking for guns which they didn't find.

It's the tears of 17 year old Ravi Sundaralingam, tortured by Indian troops in Sri Lanka – tied upside down with a fire lit beneath his head and electrodes sparking at his genitals.

It's the anguish of Angelica Mandoza de Ascarza, whose teenaged son was taken from home by the security forces in Peru, never to be heard from again. He joined the hundreds who have simply 'disappeared'.

It's the terror of a 23 year old Tibetan nun, raped by Chinese soldiers with an electric cattle prod.

It's the agony of children like Walter Villatoro and Salvadore Sandoval, street children in Guatemala City, whose eyes were burned out by police cigars, their tongues ripped from their heads with pliers.

Maybe you simply don't realise that such vile things go on. But for two years now, we have been running appeals in this newspaper. With one exception, all of these cases were mentioned in previous appeals.

Amnesty International

(Text from Carter, R. et al 1997)

Evaluation:

- Number of students: 17
- Number of successful translations: 10

The students who failed to produce a successful translation either toned down the expressive effect of certain vocabulary items such as *barbecued alive*, which was translated as أحرقوه and sometimes as قتلوه, or they intentionally omitted translating certain detailed expressions of torture as in the translation of the second paragraph by one of the students:

وأيضا دموع رافي الذي يبلغ من العمر سبعة عشر سنة، والذي تعرض هو بدوره للتعذيب من طرف الجيش الهندي حيث تم ربطه وحرقه.

In addition to this, some of the students did not attempt to translate the repeated structure "it is the …" as many times as it was repeated in the ST. Consequently, its functional import in the ST was simply lost in the translation. The example just cited is a case in point; the repeated ST structure is translated by وأيضا. Another example of a faulty translation, in which one student avoided the repetition of the above-mentioned structure, consisted simply in the listing of the various forms of torture:

" أن الهدف من الالتحاق بمنظمة العفو الدولية ليس الكلمات ولكنه الألم:
معاناة أطفال مثل...
دموع رافي...
معاناة أنجيليكا...

Pre-test: The discourse of deception

Text: 7

The students were asked to translate the following text, an advertisement for a car called Subaru. The text is characterized by a deliberate process of deletion which affects nearly all the utterances. The function of this deletion process is to make the readers believe that they are addressed by a close friend who they can trust. In other words, the advertiser is seeking to incite the reader to buy this car through a clever and deceptive use of the language. The purpose of this pre-test was then to find out how the students would deal with this manipulative use of language in their translations.

> JUSTY. THE WORLD'S FIRST 1.2 4 WD SUPERMINI.
>
> A solitary cat. In a street of its own. A poetic little mover. Precise. Instinctively sure-footed. Subaru four-wheel drive. Gripping stuff. On good roads. Rotten roads. No roads at all. Bad weather or not. Drive quality, superb. You feel in safe hands. With a sinewy little Subaru of an engine. Clean burn. Sweet torque. Pulls like a dream. Feels right. Superbly comfortable fit.
>
> (Carter, R. et al 1997)

Evaluation:

- Number of students: 7
- Number of successful translations: 3

The students producing unsuccessful translations tried to bring to the surface the omitted elements of some utterances and then translate them. Consequently, they failed to preserve the function of the deletion process.

For example, “On good roads. Rotten roads. No roads at all” was translated as:

تسير في جميع الطرقات سواء الجيدة أو الفاسدة منها.

And “Feels right. Superbly comfortable fit” was translated as:

تحس أنك في وضع جيد لأنها مريحة في كل شيء.

instead of the translation:

إحساس جميل. تجهيزات مريحة جدا.

The Lecture:

The lecture on discourse dealt with the following points:

1) Introduction and definition of discourse.
2) Discourse and ideology.
3) Discourse and genre.
4) Discourse and text types.
5) Discourse and texture.

Prior to the lectures, the students were given some material to read at home along with some questions to reflect on. The reading material hinged upon the above-mentioned points.

Post-tests: The racist discourse

The students were asked to translate the following text into Arabic. This text from the Daily Mail, which appeared on 3 September 2001, is about some asylum seekers in France who tried to smuggle themselves into England through the channel tunnel.

Text 1

The storming of the channel

Howling and cheering, they massed at the top the railway embankment. This was the remarkable scene at the French mouth of the Channel Tunnel at the weekend as 100 asylum seekers made the most determined bid yet to breach security. They launched themselves in wave after wave against the puny obstacles set in their path, hell-bent on reaching the Chunnel and Britain beyond. They swarmed easily over

> rolls of barbed wire and a 10 ft fence before emerging on the rails, triumphant. Then they hit the tracks half a mile from the entrance to the tunnel, unperturbed by a Eurostar passenger train heading past towards the promised land at 50 mph. Then, with rocks picked from the trackside they directed their fury at another train emerging from the tunnel, loaded with cars and their passengers. From point-blank range the clunk of rocks hitting the cab's bodywork rang out. Visibly shocked, the driver sped on to safety. Suddenly, one of the group doubled back. Spotting a camera crew filming the invasion from a nearby bridge, he unleashed a volley of stones from a slingshot. Hopelessly outnumbered, a handful of security guards in fluorescent yellow jackets could do nothing but watch. At the mouth of the tunnel, where staff had been forced to switch off the 25,000 volt over-head cables, a freight train came to rest, blocking one of the two rail entrances.
>
> The Daily Mail, 3 Sept. 2001 (Reah, D. 1998)

The language characterizing this article, and more precisely its texture, reflects a hostile attitude towards these refugees. At the lexical level, cohesion is maintained through:

a. the use of a vocabulary which is borrowed from the semantic field of war: *massed*, *hit*, *launched themselves in wave after wave, outnumbered, breach.*
b. the use of words associated with animals such as *howling* and *swarmed.*

At the grammatical level, cohesion is maintained through:

a. a heavy use of "they" for cataphoric reference: *they massed*, *they swarmed…*
b. the use of time sequencing to link the sentences: they massed…, they swarmed…, they hit…, they directed their fury, they launched themselves, they tried to force their way.

Together, these lexical and grammatical cohesive devices carry an ideological bias: the attempt to travel illegally is depicted as a kind of invasion by threatening beast-like people who cannot be identified and are therefore scary, and whose successive actions constitute threats to the law-abiding security staff of the Eurotunnel.

Evaluation:

- Number of students taking the test: 10
- Number of successful translations: 9

The majority of the testees were able to convey the attitudinal meaning in the source text: their vocabulary was an equal match to that of the source text; i.e. the vocabulary of the semantic field of war was skilfully redeployed along with the highly connotative words “howling” and “swarmed”.

Interview:

The students producing successful translations said that the lecture and the discussion that followed made them more active in their reading the ST and pushed them to find the most suitable equivalents.

The sensational discourse

Text 1:

LUXURY LIFE OF BULGER KILLERS

Treats, trips and gifts for pair.

By JOHN TROUP and GUY PATRICK

The boy killers of James Bulger have led an amazing life of luxury since being caged, The Sun can reveal.

A whopping $ 1.6 million has been lavished on Robert Thomson and Jon Venables – who yesterday won the right to slip back into society anonymously.

Taxpayers have footed the bill for plush rooms with videos and trips to the seaside – as well as for the finest education money can buy. Judge Dame Elizabeth Butler-Sloss yesterday ruled the 18-year-olds – just ten when they kidnapped and murdered toddler James – must be released in secret.

James was just two when Thomson and Venables snatched him from a shopping centre in Bootle, Merseyside. They tortured him to death for kicks - and left his body on a rail line. The crime shocked the nation but the killers have served just eight years in separate secure units.

And they have had the kind of privileged upbringing – including private one-to-one tuition – their poverty-stricken families could only have dreamed of.

Former truant Thompson has passed five GCSs and is studying for his A-levels.

The Sun, 11 November 1997 (Reah D. 1998)

The students were asked to translate the above text, a newspaper story from The Sun newspaper which talks about the decision of a judge to release from custody two child killers: Jon Venables and Robert Thompson after spending about 12 years in prison. Although they themselves were just ten years old when they committed the crime, the two offenders aroused extremely angry reactions from the general public.

The intention of the writer was to rally public support against this decision by the judge; for this purpose, the writer used language in a way that portrayed the perpetrators of the crime as the actors of the majority of transactive verbs (e.g. *they snatched him*, *they tortured him to death*, *they left his body on a rail line …*); whereas the parents of the victim were depicted as actors whose actions had no recipient or affected participant. The contrast between these two different actors was meant to arouse anger among the readers. Moreover, the victim, James Bulger, was presented as the object of the perpetrators' transactive verbs.

Evaluation:

- Number of students:17
- Number of successful translations: 14

The students' translations showed a marked improvement compared to their performance in the pre-tests.

Text 2:

The students were asked to retranslate the Amnesty text which they were given in the pre-test:

- Number of students: 17
- Number of successful translations: 15

Evaluation:

Nearly all the students produced a successful translation this time.

The vocabulary equivalents for the ST words were truly expressive and managed to portray the dehumanizing treatment of the torturers and the agony of the victims. Similarly, the functional role of repetition was this time carefully heeded; the students understood that repetition is not always a mark of bad style as they have been formerly taught.

Interview:

The students producing a successful translation reported having made use of the points and clarifications in the lecture along with the insights in the reading material.

5.8 Results and discussion

5.8.1 Introduction

Underlying the translation teaching experiment conducted in this research is the general hypothesis that translation training will have some beneficial effect on the students' competence and performance. The main goal of this experiment is to verify the validity of this hypothesis, especially with regard to the focus of the present research, which is training translators in interpretive skills.

The translation texts used in the experiment fall into four major discursive categories or areas, namely: register, text type, genre and discourse. Following are some statistics concerning the major discursive areas covered and the rate of students' attendance (regular or irregular attendance) for the year (2003-2004):

1) Major Areas:
   - Register
   - Text types
   - Genre
   - Discourse

2) Number of students and rate of attendance: (2003 – 2004)
   1) Number of students: 75
   2) Rate of attendance:
      - Regular: 15
      - Irregular: 15

The effect of the translation teaching experiment was evaluated using the following criteria:

a) The students' performance in the pre-tests and post-tests.
b) Their feedback after the post-tests (interviews).
c) Their impressions and reactions to the kind of translation teaching used in the experiment.
d) Comparing the performance of two different groups of students: those who attended the course and those who never did.

5.8.2 The students' impressions and reactions to the translation teaching in the experiment

In order to elicit their impressions of and reactions to the translation teaching used in the experiment, 4th year students from the academic year (2004-2005) were given a questionnaire (see appendix A). The main questions asked in the questionnaire covered among other things:

a) The degree of difficulty of the translation course
b) The degree of assimilation of the course; i.e. the progress made in the course
c) Reactions to particular major translation areas
d) Reactions to the teaching method
e) General opinions and suggestions to improve the course

5.8.2.1 The degree of difficulty of the course

For this point, the students were asked to choose between two possible answers, namely, difficult or not very difficult.

	Difficult	Percentage	not very difficult	Percentage
Students attending regularly (SAR) (15)	10	66 %	5	33%
Students attending irregularly (SAI) (15)	11	73%	4	26%

Table: 6

Interpretation:

The majority of (SAR) and (SAI) consider the translation course difficult. This result is quite expected given the interdisciplinary character of translation.

5.8.2.2 The degree of assimilation of the course

The students were asked to choose between two possible answers: a lot or a little.

	A lot	Percentage	A little	Percentage
Students attending regularly (SAR)	6	40 %	9	60%
Students attending irregularly (SAI)	6	40%	9	60%

Table: 7

Interpretation:

Only 40 % of the SAR and SAI maintain that they have assimilated the course. This may be a disheartening result, which makes it imperative to consider the circumstances which may have led up to this situation. Among the likely reasons for this result, one can mention:

a) the students' general language level in both L1 and L2 (Arabic and English)
b) the constraints on the teaching method used owing to the requirements of the experiment and due to the multitude of discursive points dealt with in a rather short time
c) the students' non-familiarity with the discursive points: register, text type, genre and discourse.

5.8.2.3 Progress made in the course

All SAR and SAI were asked to report on the progress they made after the course; for this, they were given a choice between two alternatives: a lot of progress or a little progress.

	A lot of progress	Percentage	A little progress	Percentage
Students attending regularly (SAR)	6	40 %	9	60%
Students attending irregularly (SAI)	6	40%	9	60%

Table:8

Interpretation:

The most striking thing about the results in the table above is that they are exactly similar to the results on the degree of assimilation. This, once again, is not surprising since any progress in the course, or the lack of it, is dependent on the degree of assimilation of its content. The likely reasons for this result could, therefore, be the same as those suggested concerning the degree of assimilation.

5.8.2.4 Reactions to particular major translation areas

The students were asked to give their reactions concerning the following major translation areas: translation and register, translation and text types, translation and genre and, finally, translation and discourse. They were asked to rate these areas in terms of how they felt when they were studying them by ticking the following possible answers: very interesting, not interesting. They were also asked to rate them in terms of their usefulness by choosing one of the two following possible answers: very useful or not useful.

A) Translation and registre:

	Very interesting		Not interesting		Very useful		Not useful	
	Nbr	%	Nbr	%	Nbr	%	Nbr	%
SAR (15)	11	73%	3	20%	13	86%	1	6%
SAI (15)	11	73%	3	20%	12	80%	2	13%

Table : 9

Interpretation:

The overwhelming majority of the students consider register as a very interesting area which translation students should learn about.

B) Translation and text types

	Very interesting		Not interesting		Very useful		Not useful	
	Nbr	%	Nbr	%	Nbr	%	Nbr	%
SAR (15)	13	86%	0	0%	14	93%	1	6%
SAI (15)	15	100%	0	0%	13	86%	2	6%

Table: 10

Interpretation:

The area of text types is considered by students as being far more interesting than register, judging by the figures in the table above. Most students, in fact, have found the concept text type quite appealing and helpful in translating

C) Translation and genre

	Very interesting	Percentage	Not interesting	Percentage
Students attending regularly (15)	11	73 %	2	13%
Students attending irregularly (15)	14	93%	1	7%

Table: 11

Interpretation:

Almost all the students regard genre as very interesting and consequently not to be neglected when translating.

D) Translation and discourse:

	Very interesting		Not interesting		Very useful		Not useful	
	Nbr	%	Nbr	%	Nbr	%	Nbr	%
SAR (15)	14*	93%	0	0%	15	100%	0	0%
SAI (15)	11*	73%	2	13%	12*	80%	2	13%

* some students did not provide an answer

Table: 12

Interpretation:

Almost all the students found the lessons on discourse very interesting and enjoyable. The idea that language cannot be divorced from the attitude of its speakers struck many of the students as something that was extraordinary; the expressions on their faces in class seemed to be saying: “we have always intuitively known that; but, we just didn’t know how to verbalize it”. This sudden realization of the relationship between language and discourse, as a mode of speaking and writing reflecting a certain attitude, then came to be seen by students as a crucial way of approaching the translation task. The results above do corroborate the students' positive feelings towards the discourse dimension in translating.

5.8.2.5. Reactions to the teaching method

The students were asked to give their assessment of the teaching method used during the translation experiment by choosing one of two possible answers: efficient or inefficient.

	Efficient	Percentage	Inefficient	Percentage
Students attending regularly (15)	9	60 %	6	40%
Students attending irregularly (15)	10	66%	5	33%

Table: 13

Interpretation:

Despite the various constraints (i.e. the shortage of time and the requirements of the experiment), the majority of the students were in general happy with the teaching method used. It is interesting to note that whereas SAR and SAI students gave more detailed description of the content of the translation course they attended in addition to showing the relevance of this content for the translating activity, those students who did not attend the course restricted themselves to talking about the translation course in broad terms, referring mainly to the role of this course in consolidating the student's knowledge of the foreign language and in helping him / her in their future lives.

5.8.2.6 General opinions about the translation course

All the students who completed the questionnaire agreed that the translation course was very important and most interesting. However, some students went even further and voiced some opinions which are worth quoting here. It might be quite revealing at this stage to compare the opinions of SAR and SAI students with those students who were always absent.

Attending students’ opinions:

Student 1: This course is very useful since it provides us with a general view about how to deal with text types and discourse while translating.

Student 2: In my opinion, the translation course is one of the most interesting and useful courses I have ever attended at university.

Student 3: The course helps us to know different types of texts and how to translate them.

Student 4: It is very important for students because it enables them to distinguish between text types, genre, discourse, etc.

Student 5: The course makes us aware and capable of making the distinction between different discourses, text types, etc. It also gives us the opportunity to improve our L1 and L2.

Student 6: The translation course is one of the most important courses one has ever attended though many students think that they can pass the exam without attending it.

Student 7: It is very interesting to translate different types of texts.

Student 8: This course is the medium whereby students can improve their style in writing. It also helps them improve their comprehension of certain texts in the sense that they become aware of the types of texts during the process of reading.

Student 9: The course has improved our understanding of text types, genres and discourse. It is a very interesting and challenging subject.

Non-attending students’ opinions

Student 1: I think that it is one of the most important courses even if I didn’t attend it because of my work. It seems very interesting.

Student 2: It is very interesting as it helps us in our life in general.

Student 3: A lot of courses and not enough time.

Student 4: A very interesting course, but we need PCs and books to help us.

Student 5: I think that this course is marked by its beauty. I said beauty because the teacher makes us love the language.

Student 6: It is a very interesting course; it helps us understand English better as a foreign language.

Student 7: You can benefit from this course a lot because it helps the learners master a second language.

It is interesting to note that whereas SAR and SAI gave a more detailed description of the content of the translation course they attended, i.e. text types, genre and discourse, in addition to showing the relevance of this content for the translating activity, those students who did not attend the course restricted themselves to talking about the translation course in broad terms, referring mainly to the role of this course in consolidating the student's knowledge of the foreign language and in helping him/her in their future lives.

5.8.2.7 Suggestions to improve the course

All the suggestions of SAR and SAI referred to the necessity of providing more practising time and extending the period of the translation course from one period of 1h 30 minutes per week to at least two periods. However, other important suggestions were made and some of them are given below:

- Student 1: More practice is needed using various text types.
- Student 2: What about practising the translation of texts which are required in the job market: business texts…
- Student 3: We need books that give us translating methodology.
- Student 4: We need training in oral as well as written translation.
- Student 5: Trying to deal with all the aspects of a text is not very efficient. One should focus on one aspect only; i.e. either text type, genre or discourse.
- Student 6: The translation course should be carefully graded; elementary level in the first year, intermediate in the second and third years and advanced in the fourth year. Moreover, the texts should not be too long as, I think, the aim is to learn how to translate and not how much you can translate.
- Student 7: students should be involved more in the course by giving presentations and translating texts dealing with topical issues.

Analysis of the questionnaire administered to teachers

The analysis will focus on questions 3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 20, 24, 25 and 26 of the questionnaire reproduced in Appendix B.

Question 3: Have you received any training in translation ?

For this question, 8 teachers answered negatively and 3 answered positively. Two of the latter group have studied for a Master's degree in translation in England (at Heriot-Watt University and Salford University).

The third has received a short training period in France. Thus, the majority of these teachers were not trained to teach translation.

Question 5: What are the objectives of a translation course?

For this question, 8 teachers said that the main goal is to test the students' comprehension and composition abilities in the two languages and to enrich their vocabulary. One teacher maintained that the main goal is to undertake a contrastive analysis: making the students aware of the difference and similarities between languages. The two teachers who studied in England put the view that the main objective of the course is to train students to be able to translate different text types.

From these answers it can be concluded that the main concern of the majority of these teachers is linguistic: improving the students' language performance. What is overlooked, however, is an attempt to develop in the students a clearly defined sense of the translators' tasks as interlingual and intercultural mediators.

Question 8: Do the students enjoy the translation course?

Only one teacher answered negatively. For all the other ten, translation is a course which appeals to students since it provides them with an opportunity to match the expressive capabilities and limitations of two languages and to compare the cultural background of each.

Teachers have to capitalize on this fervour and offer students didactic tools and theoretical insights so that they would enjoy the course even more.

*Question 9***:** What is the students' attendance like?

For five teachers, students' attendance is average and for one of them it is rather poor. One of the teachers tried to account for this situation by invoking a certain negative attitude on the part of the absentee students; they reason that since they will have access to the dictionary on the day of the exam, there is no need to attend the course.

Teachers have to instil into their students' minds that the dictionary is merely a working tool which has to be used carefully when necessary and that to produce a functional translation, they have to go through the necessary preliminary stage of analyzing the source text.

Question 10: Do you enjoy teaching this course?

All the teachers answered yes.

Question 12: What requirements should a translator have?

All the teachers said that the first requirement is a good command of the SL and TL. Two teachers also added that knowledge of the theory of translation is a second requirement. One of all the teachers answering the questionnaire made the point that the course should be taught by teachers with postgraduate degrees in translation.

The answers to this question clearly indicate that the majority of the teachers do not see the value of including translation theory in their courses. Thus, it seems that they prefer to go their own way teaching translation without any reference to any theoretical framework. This may be considered to be a blind strategy, to borrow Farghal's expression (2000: 88).

Question 13: What are the main problems that confront the teacher?

According to the teachers, the main problems they have to face are: the large classes, lack of material (translation textbooks and specialized dictionaries), shortage of teaching time, lack of training in the didactics of translation, the translation of culture-specific texts and making the students understand that translation is not always word for word.

Question 14: What do you think are the main problems that confront students in the translation class?

The main problems that face students according to the teachers are:

The weak level in the SL and TL (vocabulary, collocations, idiomatic expressions, grammar , writing in the foreign language, comprehension of the source text…), the lack of training in text linguistics, the misuse of bilingual dictionaries, and resorting to word for-word translation.

Question 16: Do students use knowledge of text type features when translating?

For this question six teachers answered negatively and five answered positively.

Question 20: Do you conduct a pre-translation activity of the ST before it is translated?

Eight teachers answered negatively and three answered positively. This means that, in most cases, students embark on translating without having first performed the necessary ST analysis.

Question 24: Are the students introduced to the theory of translation?

Almost all the teachers answered negatively to this question (8 teachers); only three of them stated that they generally introduced their students to the theory of translation.

Question 25: Can the insights of text linguistics contribute to the improvement of translation teaching?

All the teachers answered positively.

Question 26: What is the best approach to teach translation?

Only four teachers have attempted to give a specific answer, namely, making students aware of text types and language in context. The others, however, gave answers that were too vague, such as, for example: all approaches are good, or that there should be a combination of theory and practice.

Question 27: What are the main criteria that you use for evaluating a student's translation?

Almost all the teachers answered that they evaluate the accuracy of the translation in terms of its form and meaning. Only, three teachers stated that in addition to the evaluation of accuracy they also took into account the way the register and the text type were rendered.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Preliminaries and global findings

The area of translation teaching as a sub-branch of applied translation studies is both exciting and challenging. The challenge is due to the daunting task that confronts the translation trainer in his/her endeavour to introduce the translation trainee to a delicate terrain, where sensitivity to details, awareness of the multi-disciplinary character of the translation activity and self-awareness of the mental processes involved in comprehending and decision-making, are pre-requisites for a successful rendering of a foreign language text.

The excitement and pleasure derive from the ability of the translation trainer to bring to the surface a whole range of frequently barely perceptible relations between culture, society and the psychological domain of language, and from the opportunity to be able to share this pleasure with the trainees in class.

This research set out to do three main things. The first objective is to test the claim that discourse analysis (more particularly the contrastive discourse analysis of Hatim & Mason (1990) (1997) and the text analysis model of House (1997) could help students adopt an efficient translation strategy. Secondly, the goal is to try to contribute to the process of "professionalization" of translation teaching. Thirdly, the research is intended to see if a translation training using the insights of the discourse models above along with the psycholinguistic models of comprehension can have some beneficial effects on the students' competence and performance.

Concerning the first aim, one can say that the insights of these models allow students to understand the source text more deeply. Thanks to the guidelines put forward in these models, the students are able to extract, for the purpose of their translating activity, most needed information regarding form, content, origin, authorship and purpose. They, thus, are better able to embark on translating the source text and are more aware of the specific tasks they have to perform to achieve a successful translation.

Moreover, these models do sensitize students to the importance of taking into account a hitherto neglected aspect of texts, namely, their macro-structure. In other words, the models have assisted the students in relating the words on the page to higher semiotic structures (text type, genre and discourse), and in pointing out the differences that may occur at this level between the source text and the target text. Consequently, the models have been a great help to the students in avoiding the pitfalls of unjustified literal translation.

With regard to the second aim of this research, i.e. contributing to the process of professionalization of translation teaching and not merely relying on intuition and non-systematic approaches, one could maintain that this research has to a great extent, achieved its goal with respect to the following points:

- Helping the students rationalize their comprehension and translation processes through the use of lecturing, discussions, post-tests and interviews.
- Giving translation trainers arguments to use in favour of or against certain translation decisions. These arguments are based on a context-sensitive contrastive discourse model, on the principles of translation quality assessment and on psycholinguistic models of comprehension (top-down vs. bottom-up processes, Boekart's model about the comprehension process and the empirical results derived from TAPS concerning controlled and uncontrolled translation processes).
- Making students aware of what is expected of them and of their roles as "autonomous intercultural and interlingual mediators" (Kiraly 1995: 113).
- Implementing a curriculum design that is systematic (informed by textlinguistic findings and insights) and that is graded (moving in a meaningful way from the least to the most complex).

As far as the third aim is concerned, and in spite of the constraints of time and the requirements of the experiment, one can say that the kind of translation training used in the experiment did have some beneficial effects on the students' translation competence and on their performance especially in the areas of text types, genre and discourse. Training in register, however, did not lead to any substantial improvement in translation performance although it did have a significant influence on their source text processing of a few texts.

The effect of the translation teaching was evaluated by using:

a. the students’ performance in the pre-tests and post-tests
b. their feedback after the post-tests (interviews)
c. their impressions and reactions to the kind of translation teaching used in the experiment
d. a comparison of the performance of two different groups of students: those who attended the course regularly and those who never did.

6.2 Pedagogical implications

The most important pedagogical implications are derived from the text-based model presented above, from the results of the translation teaching experiment, the answers to the questionnaire given to the translation students and the answers to the questionnaire given to a number of Moroccan university translation professors (see appendix B).

A translation teaching programme should consist of three main components: a language competence component, a transfer competence component and a subject competence component (Neubert 1995: 412).

The first component will deal with language training in both the SL and TL. Many translation curricula disregard this important aspect of translator training and concentrate mainly on the transfer competence component, on the contestable grounds that a translation teaching course should not be the domain for practical and remedial language work.

However, it is our firm belief that the translation curricula in use have to be restructured so as to enable students to have some language training. It is all very well to teach students some translation skills and strategies, such as the ones used in the experiment (for example, register analysis). However, this cannot be sufficient. Translation trainees should have “a thorough grounding in language competence and subject competence” if they are to learn to translate adequately and professionally (Neubert, ibid). More specifically, the language competence component should provide instruction and guidance on the use of language in communication in both the SL and TL. It should also provide grammar lessons at the word, phrase and sentence levels in both languages (Li 2001: 348). These language courses should run in parallel with the transfer competence courses.

The second component, transfer competence, will consist of two main parts: part (A) will deal with developing a “theory of translating” (Farghal 2000: 86) i.e. “a set of practical principles, guidelines and problem-solving strategies”. For this purpose, Baker’s translation course book (1992) could be used, together with other basic references. Part (B) will deal with developing a “theory of translation” (Farghal, ibid) that will encompass the following main points:

- A course in translation studies in the sense defined by Holmes (1972). (See section 2.2 above).
- The relationships between theoretical, descriptive and applied translation theories.
- Current theoretical translation studies such as the textlinguistic approaches to translation
- Psycholinguistic models of comprehension

Concerning this part (B), Hatim’s translation textbook (1997 b) would be most useful for introducing students to how to translate different text types.

6.3 Specific implications

1) Students should be informed about the objectives of the course and what is expected of them.
2) The translation course should be divided into levels: elementary level in the first year, intermediate in the second and third years and advanced in the fourth year.
3) The translation approaches used in class should be explained to the students.
4) Students should be made aware of their psycholinguistic comprehension processes.
5) Students should be encouraged to carry out text analysis so as to produce translations that are functional.
6) Students should be exposed to different forms of register in the SL and TL. They should also be given ample practice in writing and translating different registers.
7) Students should be introduced to parallel texts and they should be helped to develop the ability “to associate spontaneously source and target language elements” in view of the results of the TAPS. (Kiraly 1995)
8) Students should be taught how to translate overtly and covertly.
9) The criteria for evaluating students’ translations should be defined and made available for the students.
10) More teaching time should be allocated for the translation course so that the students could have more practice and instant feedback and so that they could take part in pair and group interactions.

11) Teachers who are interested in teaching translation should take up a course in translation studies.
12) Specialized and updated dictionaries should be made available for students and staff at the university and English department libraries.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

A QUESTIONNAIRE

- Name:
- Age:
- Level:
- Number of years at university:
- Number of years in the second cycle:
- Foreign languages :

Please cross the appropriate answers

- The degree of difficulty of the translation course:

Very difficult	**difficult**	**Not very difficult**

- Did you assimilate the course?

A lot	**A little**	**Not at all**

- How did you find these lessons?

• translation & register :	Very interesting	Not interesting	boring
• translation & text types :	Very interesting	Not interesting	boring
• translation & genre :	Very interesting	Not interesting	boring
• translation & discourse :	Very interesting	Not interesting	boring

• translation & register :	Very useful	Not usefil	useless
• translation & text types :	Very useful	Not useful	useless
• translation & discourse :	Very useful	Not useful	useless

- Teaching method:

efficient
not very efficient

- Satisfaction with the course:	satisfied
	unsatisfied
- Progress made in the course:	a lot of progress
	no progress at all

- Your suggestions for improving the course:

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APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TRANSLATION TEACHERS

Questionnaire

Source of the questionnaire
Name : Chakib BNINI
Occupation : English Teacher at the Faculty of Letters Ben Msik
Address : Faculty of Letters Ben Msik
English Department
University Hassan II/ Mohammedia – Casablanca
Interests : Linguistics and Translation

Thank you very much for answering concisely and precisely the questions in this questionnaire. The questions are about the teaching of translation at the undergraduate level in Moroccan Universities. The main purpose of this questionnaire is to elicit the kind of problems that confront the translation teacher and the student. It is hoped that through this evaluative instrument a better understanding of these problems will be achieved and thereby a set of principles or strategies will be established to predict what an optimum translation should be like in different situations.

Thank you once again for your cooperation.

1- Do you teach translation? (English/Arabic/English)

Yes   No

2- Have you ever taught translation?

Yes   No

3- Have you received any training in the didactics of translation?

Yes   No

4- If yes, where did you receive such training?

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5- In your opinion, what are the objectives of a translation course?

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6- In your opinion, is translation an essential course at the undergraduate level?

Yes   No

7- Is translation an effective technique of foreign language learning?

Yes   No

8- Do students enjoy the translation course?

Yes   No

9- What is the students' attendance in this course like?

Good   Average

10- If you do teach translation, do you enjoy teaching this course?

Yes   No

11- If not, why?

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12- In your opinion, what requirements should a translation teacher have?

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13- What do you think are the main problems that confront the translation teacher?

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14- What do you think are the main problems that confront the studenst in the translation class?

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15- Are students in general aware of the distinction between form and function when translating?

Yes No

16- From your experience, which of the following types of knowledge do translation students predominantly use to interpret and then translate a text?

(Please tick the appropriate answer)

a) Knowledge of vocabulary?

☐ Yes ☐ No

b) Knowledge of sentence structure?

☐ Yes ☐ No

c) Knowledge of text type features in SL and TL?

☐ Yes ☐ No

d) Knowledge of regularities of discourse structure? (Ex: theme/rheme…)

☐ Yes ☐ No

e) Knowledge of textual patterns in SL and TL (Ex: situation, problem, solution, evaluation)?

☐ Yes ☐ No

17- a) Do most students resort to word-for-word translation?

☐ Yes ☐ No

b) Why?

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18- Are students aware of SL *text structure*, i.e. the non-linear interrelationships of textual elements when they translate?

Yes No I don't know

19- Are students required to justify the structural changes they introduce in the TL?

Yes No

20- Do you conduct a pre-translation activity of the ST before it is translated?

Yes No

21- Are the students made aware of the linguistic differences and similarities between Arabic and English during this activity?

Yes No

22- Does this activity include a practical analysis of the ST structure?

Yes No

23- Are the students introduced into the ways the two languages deal with cohesion and coherence in their respective texts?

Yes No

24- Are students introduced to the theory of translation?

Yes No

25- Can the insights of discourse analysis and text linguistics contribute to the improvement of translation teaching?

Yes No

26- In your opinion, what is the best approach to teach translation?

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27- What are the main criteria that you use for evaluating a student's translation?

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Thank you very much

This questionnaire was given to 11 Moroccan teachers who teach translation (English-Arabic-English) at the undergraduate level in different faculties of Letters throughout Morocco. The number of these faculties established in the main cities is 14.

CITIES	**NUMBER OF FACULTIES OF LETTERS**
Casablanca	2 Faculties (Ben Msik and Ain Chok)
Fes	2 Faculties (Dhar El Mahraz and Saiss)
Meknes	1
Rabat	1
Marrakech	1
Beni Mellal	1
El Jadida	1
Kénitra	1
Agadir	1
Tétouan	1
Oujda	1
Mohammedia	1

Only 10 faculties of letters were targeted by the questionnaire, these are:

FACULTIES OF LETTERS	**NUMBER OF TEACHERS ANSWERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE**
Fez (Saiss)	1
Fez (Dhar Mehraz)	1
Beni Mellal	1
Casablanca (Ben Msik)	1
Casablanca (Ain Chok)	1
Marrakech	1
Mohammedia	2
Meknes	1
El Jadida	1
Rabat	1

Analysis of the questionnaire:

The analysis will focus on questions 3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 20, 24, 25 and 26.

Question 3**:** Have you received any training in translation?

For this question, 8 teachers answered negatively and 3 answered positively. Two of the latter group have studied for a Master's degree in translation in England (at Heriot-Watt University and Salford University). The third has received a short training period in France. Thus, the majority of these teachers were not trained to teach translation.

Question 5**:** What are the objectives of a translation course?

For this question, 8 teachers said that the main goal is to test the students' comprehension and composition abilities in the two languages and to enrich their vocabulary. One teacher maintained that the main goal is to undertake a contrastive analysis: making the students aware of the differences and similarities between languages. The two teachers who studied in England put the view that the main objective of the course is to train students to be able to translate different text types.

From these answers it can be concluded that the main concern of the majority of these teachers is linguistic: improving the students' language performance. What is overlooked, however, is an attempt to develop in the students a clearly defined sense of the translators' tasks as interlingual and intercultural mediators.

Question 8**:** Do the students enjoy the translation course?

Only one teacher answered negatively. For all the other ten, translation is a course which appeals to students since it provides them with an opportunity to match the expressive capabilities and limitations of two languages and to compare the cultural background of each.

Teachers have to capitalize on this fervour and offer students didactic tools and theoretical insights so that they would enjoy the course even more.

Question 9**:** What is the students' attendance like?

For five teachers, students' attendance is average and for one of them it is rather poor. One of the teachers tried to account for this situation by invoking a certain negative attitude on the part of the absentee students; they reason that since they will have access to the dictionary on the day of the exam, there is no need to attend the course.

Teachers have to instil into their students' minds that the dictionary is merely a working tool which has to be used carefully when necessary and that to produce a functional translation, they have to go through the necessary preliminary stage of analyzing the source text.

Question 10**:** Do you enjoy teaching this course?

All the teachers answered yes.

Question 12: What requirements should a translator have?

All the teachers said that the first requirement is a good command of the SL and TL. Two teachers also added that knowledge of the theory of translation is a second requirement. One of all the teachers answering the questionnaire made the point that the course should be taught by teachers with postgraduate degrees in translation.

The answers to this question indicate clearly that the majority of the teachers do not see the value of including translation theory in their courses. Thus, it seems that they prefer to go their own way teaching translation without any reference to any theoretical framework. This may be considered to be a blind strategy, to borrow Farghal's expression (2000: 88).

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According to the teachers, the main problems they have to face are: the large classes, lack of material (translation textbooks and specialized dictionaries), shortage of teaching time, lack of training in the didactics of translation, the translation of culture-specific texts and finally making the students understand that translation is not always word for word.

Question 14**:** What are the main problems that confront students in the translation class?

The main problems that face students according to the teachers are:

The weak level in the SL and TL: (vocabulary, collocations, idiomatic expressions, grammar, writing in the foreign language, comprehension of the source text…), the lack of training in textlinguistics, the misuse of bilingual dictionaries, and resorting to word- for-word translation.

Question 16**:** Do students use knowledge of text type features when translating?

For this question, six teachers answered negatively and five answered positively.

Question 20: Do you conduct a pre-translation activity of the ST before it is translated?

Eight teachers answered negatively and three answered positively. This means that, in most cases, students embark on translating without having first performed the necessary ST analysis.

Question 24**:** Are the students introduced to the theory of translation?

Almost all the teachers answered negatively to this question (8 teachers); only three of them stated that they generally introduced their students to the theory of translation.

Question 25: Can the insights of textlinguistics contribute to the improvement of translation teaching?

All the teachers answered positively.

Question 26: What is the best approach to teach translation?

Four teachers only have attempted to give a specific answer; namely, making students aware of text types and language in context. The others, however, gave answers that were too vague, such as, for example: all approaches are good, or that there should be a combination of theory and practice.

Question 27**:** What are the main criteria that you use for evaluating a student's translation?

Almost all the teachers answered that they evaluate the accuracy of the translation in terms of its form and meaning. Only, three teachers stated that in addition to the evaluation of accuracy they also took into account the way register and text type were rendered.

APPENDIX C

SAMPLES OF SOME STUDENTS' INTERVIEWS ON THE TRANSLATION OF TEXT TYPES

The students:

1) Miss Dounia Laazizi
2) Mr.Yassir Ikhouane
3) Miss Achouak Mlih
4) Lechhab

Question: What steps do you follow in translating a text?

- Miss Dounia Laaziz:

The knowledge of text types dictates the translation strategy to be adopted. Thus, there are two major strategies which are: the literal approach and the free approach. Concerning the literal approach, we use literal translation, especially for texts in which we find objectivity and evaluativeness. For the free approach, we do not consider words in isolation, but we translate the intended meaning of the writer. This approach is useful for texts that are evaluative and that express emotions.

- Mr. Yassir Ikhouane:

The first thing that a translator has to do is to read the text and to decide what type of text he or she is dealing with ; that is to say , is it an argumentative, an expository text, or an instructional text? Concerning the argumentative text type, the translator has to locate the thesis and the anti-thesis. Then he can decide about the appropriate words to use. Moreover, the translator has to know where the substantiation and conclusion of the argumentative text are. Also, if the text is an expository one, the translator has to be neutral and present the facts as they are.

- Miss Achouak Mlih:

To translate a test, I first of all read it three times to understand its meaning and content. Then, I try to explain its difficult words and find their translations. After that, I decide what type of text I am dealing with: is it argumentative, expository or instructional? This decision influences my translation. Then, I concentrate on each paragraph. When I finish translating, I read the translated text to see if it is readable and coherent.

APPENDIX D

THE LECTURE ON REGISTER

Introduction:

Traditionally, translation teaching has tended to be based on a non-systematic approach; a text is chosen and any translation problems that emerge are dealt with in whatever order they come. This approach leads to translations which are very subjective because it is not based on a rigorous method (see Gabriella Mauriello 1992).

What is needed then is a systematic and structured approach giving translation trainees some points of reference (Ibid) from which to start and on which they can base their translations. For this purpose, the approach pursued in this course is a textlinguistic one; that is, an approach in which the various aspects of context involved during speech production and reception as well as during the act of translating are taken into consideration. These aspects consist of:

- The register membership of the text.
- The pragmatics of the communicative act or how language is used to convey various intentions.
- The semiotics of culture which Hatim (2000: 13) defines as "the way language use relies on a system of signs which signify knowledge and beliefs essential for members of a community to operate in an acceptable manner." This system of signs is referred to as textual practices and covers the following: genre, discourse and text types.

Before relating a text to the various aspects of context during the process of reading, (i.e. the receptive process), the text decoder has first to determine the meaning of each word on the page by linking it to its co-text. To be more specific, a word may have a set of potential meanings (top-down knowledge) which have to be tested against the co-text, the progression of an unfolding text (bottom-up knowledge); only after this operation can the meaning of this word be determined and clarified. As an example, take the word 'act' which consists of the following set of potential meanings taken from Oxford Learner's Pocket Dictionary (1991): a) something done; b) the process of doing something; c) a law made by a government; d) a main division of a play; e) one of a series of short performances. In the sentence: 'He played in the second act ', the meaning of 'act' can only be (d) above, by virtue of the words which come before this word. This interplay between top-down and bottom-up knowledge at this micro level of text processing is necessary, as an initial operation, for making sense of the words on the page.

- Establishing the register membership (social context) of a text:

In order to grasp the meaning of a word still further, this initial operation has to be followed by another, relating the words on the page to their context of situation; in other words, the reader or translator has to establish the register membership of the text; more precisely, he/she has to indicate how the various aspects of the context of situation are realized linguistically; i.e. syntactically, lexically and textually.

So let us examine this first dimension of the text in context. For this dimension, a contextual category has been suggested, namely register. Register refers to the relationship that is found between a given situation and the language used in it; this relationship is marked by differences in grammar and vocabulary in different types of situation. Gregory and Carroll (1978: 4) also provide a definition that is insightful:

Register is a contextual category correlating groupings of linguistic with recurrent situational features.

For Hatim (1990: 46), the category of register is useful for translators and revisers who are faced with the inappropriateness of texts which result from the lack of knowledge on the part of students of the grammatical and lexical features appropriate to different situations.

Three basic aspects of register are distinguished: field, tenor and mode. Register variation results from variations in these aspects. For Baker (1992: 15), these three aspects are abstract terms. She defines each in the following terms:

- Field: This is an abstract term for «what is going on» which is relevant to the speaker's or writer's choice of linguistic items. Linguistic choices will vary according to whether the speaker is discussing a football match, making a political speech or discussing politics.

- Mode: This is an abstract term which refers to the medium of transmission (spoken, written). Linguistic choices are influenced by these dimensions.
- Tenor: This is an abstract term for the relationships between the people taking part in the communication activity. The language people use varies depending on interpersonal relationships such as mother and child, doctor and patient,

The three variables are interdependent: a given level of formality (tenor) influences and is influenced by a particular level of technicality (field) in an appropriate (mode) of communication.

These variables, according to Halliday (1978:12) serve to interpret the social context of a text; that is, they identify its social context (register membership) by:

a. assigning a field to the text, noting what is going on,
b. assigning a tenor to it, recognizing the personal relationships involved,
c. assigning to it a mode.

Register equivalence**:**

To achieve register equivalence, the translator has to go through two stages:

1) analyzing the ST register by using a plan of work or a scheme; i.e. the translator has to indicate how the situations of the aspects of register are realized syntactically, lexically, and textually. The aim of this analysis is to obtain a textual profile (an account of the situational-linguistic correlations). This textual profile will guide the student translator in order to find suitable matches along the three aspects of register.

More generally, the textual profile will characterize the function of the text which according to House consists of an ideational component and an interpersonal component; i.e. it will indicate how the situational-linguistic means of the ST contribute in a particular way to each of the two components of the text's function.

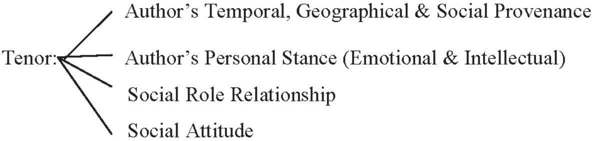
2) matching the ST register by using equivalent situational-linguistic means to those in the textual profile; i.e. the translator has to use equivalent terminology for a given field and employ TL words, phrases, etc. in the appropriate tenor and mode.

Below, a scheme or plan of work, using aspects of register, for analyzing source texts for translation purposes is given. The aim of the scheme is to obtain a textual profile.

A Scheme (a plan of work) for Analyzing Texts Using Aspects of Register

Field:

- Lexical means
- Syntactic means
- Textual means


Tenor:
Author's Temporal, Geographical & Social Provenance
Author's Personal Stance (Emotional & Intellectual)
Social Role Relationship
Social Attitude

- Author's Temporal, Geographical and Social Provenance

Author's Personal Stance (Emotional & Intellectual)

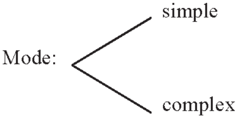
- Lexical means
- Syntactic means
- Textual means

Social Role Relationship: (social power), equal to equal, higher to lower

- Lexical means
- Syntactic means
- Textual means

Social Attitude (social distance)

- Lexical means
- Syntactic means
- Textual means



Lexical means

Syntactic means

Textual means

Correlating Groupings of Linguistic Features with Recurrent Situational Features

In order to make ST textual profiles, one has to become familiar with correlations between some recurrent or situational features and some linguistic features (see House 1997). The following is a summary of these correlations:

- FIELD: Situation

The writer/speaker's choice of linguistic items (vocabulary and structure) will vary according to what is going on: a speech, a story for children, an academic article…

- Language:

For each domain of activity, we will find a preponderance of certain vocabulary, of certain structures and certain cohesive devices. Scientific writing, for example, is characterized by the following features:

Lexical Means	technical terminology
Syntactic Means	a) heavy use of the passive b) a predilection for sentences beginning with "it" (a pleonastic "it") to indicate an impersonal approach. Ex: It has been observed that the genetic make-up of marine mammals predisposes them to reproductive failure when exposed to even moderate levels of PCB s. c) the use of conditional clauses, where often the subject and the verb "to be" are omitted and the "if" or "when" may also disappear. Ex: Heated to 150°C, the substance melts. d) a preference for the subordinate clause coming before the main clause; this structuring reflects the logical approach of science itself; that is, a condition giving a result, a cause giving an effect. e) starting a sentence with an infinitive rather than an adverbial clause of purpose. Ex: To obtain good results, the compound was ….

MODE: *Situation* (simple or complex)

Simple: Here language is “written to be read silently” or “spoken to be heard”.

Language: For the “written to be read silently mode”, the following features are usually found:

Syntactic Means

a) absence of ellipsis and contractions
b) absence of spoken language signals (gambits), such as: well, you see, you know, I mean…
c) presence of expanded postnominal and pronominal modification resulting in the separation of the head of the subject noun phrases and the corresponding verb. Ex: The principal reason for the establishment of this system and the distribution of its components was to permit the continuation …
d) frequency of long and complex clauses featuring subordination and multiple coordination.
e) placing of expanded subordinate clauses before the main clause. Ex: In order to avoid the possibility of road accidents, motorists are advised not to drive in severe weather conditions.

Lexical Means

a) absence of interjections and other subjectivity markers
b) presence of (+ abstract) noun phrases. Ex: Antisemitic ideology was predominant.

Textual means

a) strong cohesion: presence of cohesion devices
b) absence of repetition resulting in lack of redundancy
c) frequent use of passivization as a “written” means of complex syntactic linkage, especially for the preservation of the theme-rheme sequence

Complex: Here language is written to be spoken

Language: The language is characterized by the following:

Syntactic Means

a) presence of ellipsis (incompleteness of sentences) and contractions
b) presence of spoken language signals (gambits)
c) structural simplicity
d) frequency of short coordinated clauses
e) presence of loosely-structured clauses featuring parenthetical and appositional structures, thus creating an impression of lack of premeditation, typical of the spoken mode
f) use of emphasis

Lexical means

a) presence of words and phrases marked (formal)
b) use of abbreviations
c) use of intensifiers

Textual means

a) ample use of repetition for redundancy to make comprehension easier
b) looseness in the logical structuring of the text which is indicative of the lack of premeditation.

TENOR: *Situation* (Social role relationship and social attitude)

Social role relationship (social power)

- asymmetrical: higher to lower / lower to higher
- symmetrical: equal to equal
- absence of role relationship

Asymmetrical situation: higher to lower
Language:

Syntactic Means	- Frequency of impersonal constructions using impersonal it, existential there and passives - Use of (- human) subject noun phrases adding to the impersonal character of the text. - Use of *we* to refer the addresser.

Symmetrical situation: equal to equal

Language:

- Use of first person and second person pronouns

Absence of role relationship: The relationship between author and reader recedes into the background. The cognitive content predominates.

Language:

- Absence of first and second person pronouns
- Frequency of expanded (- human) noun phrases
- Use of verbs which merely signal logical connection and thus mainly point to other semantically more important words; they heighten the impression of abstractness and impersonality.

APPENDIX E

LECTURE ON GENRE

In addition to the contextual category of register for establishing the register membership of a text, another category is needed to explain deeper similarities between texts. This is the category of genre, which according to House (1997) is superordinate to register.

The question now is: how do we know that some texts share certain similarities and thus belong to a particular genre? In other words, what characteristics or features make them similar? The answer is that similar texts will manifest a particular structure pointing to a particular genre; i.e. they will manifest the presence of some obligatory elements which occur in a highly predictable sequence and which control the participants' interactions (Haddad 1995: 34-36).

A particular genre is then marked by a particular structure. It is furthermore characterized by the following features:

a. stability of register, especially in highly conventionalized genres such as birth, death, marriage announcements and wedding invitations; i.e. each of these genres has its own relatively stable types of utterances (Bakhtin 1986).
b. surface level features; i.e. certain phonological characteristics and certain graphic representations

Genre and Register:

The relationship between genre and register can be stated as follows: generic choices are realized by register choices which in turn are realized by linguistic choices. For example, a children's story is realized by certain register choices concerning field, tenor and mode, and these materialize through appropriate language forms.

Some genres are highly conventionalized and allow little or no variations in their register. These genres are stable. Some other genres allow a certain variation in their registers. For example, the genre of greeting can move from the familiar to the formal. The recipe also, as a genre, can have a variety of potential realizations. This variety within a given genre is the outcome of the writer's / speaker's relationship to the text's subject matter and to the intended reader / listener.

Genre and Areas of Human Activity:

According to Bakhtin (1986), there are diverse areas of human activity which call for the use of language. As a result, the forms and nature of this language will mirror through vocabulary, grammar and structure the specific situations and goals of any given area.

More importantly, according to Bakhtin (Ibid), each of these areas of human activity "develops its own relatively stable types" of language forms or utterances. These language forms or utterances he refers to as SPEECH GENRES.

In fact, a given sphere of activity may include a number of speech genres which go on expanding and differentiating as the sphere of activity evolves (Ibid).

Speech Genres in Everyday life:

For Bakhtin (1986), language users communicate through definite genres which, as it has been noted, are marked by their relatively stable linguistic forms. In other words, in the act of communicating, a speaker's intended meaning is moulded into a particular speech genre which could be the genre of greeting, leave-taking, recipes, wedding invitations, academic abstracts, death announcements, story-telling… These speech genres are unconsciously handed down to us by our parents and elders through everyday verbal exchange since early childhood, that is, even before the period of schooling. It is therefore not surprising that speakers use them so successfully without being even aware of them.

The Psychological Reality of Genres: do genres have a real existence?

Genres do have a psychological reality; i.e. language users are aware of them, usually at an unconscious level, and make use of them. For Bex (1996: 169): "Genres have a real existence because they serve to orient readers as to what type of text they are dealing with". He further adds that "such orientation can never take place in a vacuum; i.e. in the act of reading, readers make predictions as to what type of text they are dealing with, primarily because they are familiar with previous texts which manifest similar selections of particular linguistic features".

Definition of Genre:

According to Kress (1985:19) genres are: "conventionalized forms of texts which reflect the functions and goals involved in particular social occasions as well as the purposes of the participants in them."

Genre and Culture:

Genres link texts to culture in that they "refer to the staged purposeful social processes through which a culture is realized" (Martin and Rotherby (1986: 263).

The Relevance of Genre to Translation:

Genre has a major role to play in translation. For Hatim (2001: 141), "genre can be seen as a macro-sign which provides translators with a framework with which appropriateness is judged and the various syntactic, semantic, pragmatic and semiotic structures are handled". He further adds that "so-called cultural gaps, and even grammatical or lexical errors encountered in translation, may be textual in essence and can therefore be explained more adequately in terms of a failure to appreciate the conventions governing such macro-structures as genres". (Ibid: 212)

The Translation of Genre: Overt and Covert Translation

The notion of equivalence is related to the preservation of meaning across two different languages. There are three aspects of that meaning that are particularly important for translation: a semantic aspect, a pragmatic aspect and a textual aspect.

However, the notion of equivalence as the preservation of meaning across two different languages needs to be further refined in relation to two types of translation: overt translation and covert translation.

According to House (1997), translation has a double-binding relationship both to its source and to the communicative conditions of the receiving linguaculture. Therefore, House distinguishes two types of translation: an overt translation and a covert translation. An overt translation is source-text focused and a covert translation is target-text focused. Thus, instead of the one-sided concern with the reception of translation in the target culture, House takes account of both: the original and the target text.

In overt translation, the purpose of the translation is to enable its readers (TL readers) to have access to the function of the original in its original linguacultural setting through another language; i.e. in this type of translation, STs are merely transplanted into a new environment with no considerations for the readers' norms of expectations.

The source texts that require an overt translation, according to House (1997), are those which have “an established worth or status in the source language community”. She divides these texts into two groups:

1. Historically-linked source texts which are associated with a particular social occasion: a sermon, a political speech, a wedding invitation…
2. Timeless source texts: i.e. works of art and aesthetic creation.

Following this classification of the source texts requiring an overt translation, House urges translators not to look for approximate equivalents for the historically linked source texts because, she argues, these texts « have the status of a document of a historical event in the source culture »; instead, she suggests keeping these culture-specific items as they are in the TT and providing explanatory notes to the TT readers.

In a covert translation, the translator takes into consideration the differences between the ST culture and the TT culture and thus uses a cultural filter that will cater for the expectations of the TT readers by introducing the necessary shifts and changes to the TT. Those texts which, according to House (Ibid), require a covert translation are: scientific texts, economic texts, tourist information booklets and journalistic texts.

The decision to opt for either an overt or a covert type of translation is, however, not always straightforward, according to House. This decision is sometimes subjective depending on the way a given text is viewed by the translator; i.e. is the source text conceived of as the product of a specific culture, or as a product which is non-culture specific? If it is the first case, an overt translation will be necessary; if it is the second case, a covert translation is required. Fairy-tales and the Bible are cited by House as texts which may undergo either the first or second type of translation.

Beyond this subjectivity element in the translation decision, House draws attention to the fact that one or the other way of translating may also be dictated by the goal of the translation.

Summary:

Culture is realized through genres because genres reflect the functions and goals involved in particular social occasions as well as the purposes of the participants in them.

Since different languages manifest different cultures through their genres, it becomes clear that translation will have to deal with the conventions governing the SL and TL genres.

Given the fact that the main function of translation is to preserve meaning across two different languages through the concept of equivalence and in view of the fact that translation could be considered as a double-binding operation, source-text focused or target-text focused, the notion of equivalence has to be refined so as to accommodate this view of translation. Thus, a source-text focused translation which is concerned with the particular features of the ST genres (especially, historically-linked source texts and timeless source texts) will necessitate an overt type of translation, giving the TT reader access to the function of the original in its original linguacultural setting; i.e. without applying a cultural filter.

At the end of the lecture, the students were given some exercises in which they had to translate some texts either overtly or covertly. These exercises were carried out and corrected in class and were followed by very interesting discussions during which they asked some very pertinent questions. Below are two sample exercise texts for which the students had to apply either an overt or a covert translation.

S. TEXT 1:
وجدت هذه الطفلة في محطة الحافلات و كان ذلك في يوم عاشوراء.
S. TEXT 2:
لكونها جاء المقدم و طلب منها ان تذهب الى مركز الشرطة لان الجيران قدموا شكوى ضدها
تستعمل انواعا مختلفة من البخور و خاصة الفاسوخ الذى يخنق الانفاس
S. TEXT 3: (Moroccan Arabic: the beginning of a popular story)
كان يا ما كان كان الله في كل مكان حتى كان الحبق و السوسان في حجر النبي العدنان سيدنا
محمد عليه الصلاة و السلام

(The ending of the story)
مشات خرافتنا الواد الواد وا حنا بقينا مع الجواد.

The problematic cultural items in these texts are عاشوراء (Achouraa) in TEXT 1, المقدم (al-mqaddam) and الفاسوخ (al-fasoukh) in TEXT 3, in addition to the totality of TEXT 3 in its entirety. The testees produced two translations, an overt and a covert one for each text. Below are some sample translations made by one of the students for each text along with some explanatory notes.

Translation A of text 1: (an overt translation)

It was on the Day of *Achouraa when I found this girl at the bus station.

Translation A of text 2: (an overt translation)

*Al-mqaddam came and told her to go to the police station because the neighbours had complained to the police about her. They had done that as she used different kinds of incense, and especially *al-fasoukh which suffocated them.

Translation A of text 3: (the beginning of the story)

There was God everywhere and al-susaan (daffodils) and al-hbaq (a kind of green nice smelling plant) were on the lap of the prophet Mohamed, peace be upon him. (the ending of the story):

So our story went down the valley and we are left with the noble people.

The meanings of these culture-specific terms are as follows:

- Achouraa: the 10th day of the month of Moharram (Muslim calendar) during which muslims give alms to the poor and on the eve of which big fires are lit.
- Al-mqaddam: A person who aids the local authorities. One of his tasks is to gather all necessary information about the people living in a particular neighbourhood.
- Al-fasoukh: it is a substance that is burnt and which does not smell nice. It is supposed to ward off the evil eye.

Translation B of text 1: (a covert translation)

It was during a religious holiday when I found this girl at the bus station.

Translation B of Text 2: (a covert translation)

A local authority official asked her to go with him to the police because the neighbours had complained about her as she used different kinds of incense and especially one kind that did not smell nice and which suffocated them.

Translation B of Text 3:

(the beginning of the story)

Once upon a time, there was a man who …

(the end of the story)

And that is the end of our story.

NOTES

Chapter I

1. While, for some, teaching translation academically should aim at training future translators for the job market, for others, it is just an additional language activity which helps students in their text comprehension and composition. However, there are those, such as Defeng Li (2001: 351), who argue that both goals should be aimed at, and that one therefore has to strike a balance between language training and translation training.

2. For Kiraly (1995: 16), it is essential for translation trainers to be aware of the constituents and nature of translation competence for efficient teaching. He also points to the distinction between translation competence and translator competence; i.e. the more general types of native and foreign language communication that the translator shares with bilinguals, and the translation skills that are specific to professional translation and which most bilinguals do not usually develop naturally. For Wilss (1982: 58), the constituents of translation competence are: a receptive competence, a reproductive competence and a super competence (how to translate a SL text into a TL text). The third constituent is, according to Wilss, intertextual and not interlingual. For Neubert (1995: 412), translational competence consists of language competence, subject competence and transfer competence.

3. Gabriella Mauriello (1992: 64) describes most eloquently this non-systematic approach to translation teaching: "you take a text and deal with whatever translation problems arise from this particular text, in whatever order they come". Röhl (1983: 4) also argues that "translators are being trained despite the absence of a systematically developed and tested translation didactics."

Chapter II

1. Chau's use of the designation "Translation Studies" is different from that of Holmes's (1972) since whereas the latter includes Translation Teaching within Translation Studies in general, Chau does not.

2. Some representatives of this linguistic trend according to Chau are C.F. Hockett (1954) who "proposes immediate constituents as basic units of translation", Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) who make "a predominantly formal linguistic comparison of French and English", and Catford (1965).

3. Chau cites K-E Heidolph (1966), Pike (1967), R. Crymes (1968), S. Dik (1968), R. Harweg (1968) and R. Hassan (1968).

4. According to Koller, one has to make the distinction between the concepts of equivalence and correspondence. The latter belongs to the field of contrastive linguistics and involves the comparison of two language systems and the contrastive description of their similarities and differences. In short, it relies on language. In contrast, equivalence deals with "equivalent items in specific ST-TT pairs and contexts" and thus relies on parole (Koller 1979: 176-91). Moreover, Koller points out that knowledge of correspondences indicates competence in the foreign language, whereas knowledge of equivalences indicates competence in translation.

5. According to Catford, translation shifts are "formal changes that occur during the transfer process (Catford 1965: 71 in Chesterman 1986). These shifts are divided into two major types: level shifts and category shifts. While the first refers to grammar, lexis, phonology and graphology, the second refers to units (sentences, clauses, noun-phrases, words, morphemes), structure (word-order, etc. of units), class (nominal group or verbal group, etc.) and system (the closed set of alternatives such as singular-plural)

Level shifts involve shifts from grammar to lexis and vice-versa. For example:

ST: This text is intended for…
TT: Le présent manuel s'adresse à…

"This", a deictic item in grammar, has as its equivalent an article + a lexical adjective.

Category shifts include unit shifts, structure shifts, class shifts and system shifts:

- Unit shifts: Concerning this sub-type of shifts, Catford says that "usually, but not always, there is sentence-sentence equivalence, but in the course of a text, equivalence may shift up and down the rank-scale, often being established at ranks lower than the sentence" (Catford in Chesterman1989 :73-74). Here is an example of unit shifts:

ST: He said that he would come. (a clause)
TT: Il a annoncé son voyage. (a noun phrase)

- Structure shifts:

ST: Jack wrote a book. (SVO)
TT (Arabic): Kataba djak risa:latan
"wrote Jack a letter"

- Class shifts:

ST: a white house (Modifier-Head)
TT (French): une maison blanche (Head-Qualifier)

- system shifts:

advice	des conseils (French).
news	des nouvelles (French).

Chapter III

1- The term "aspect" is another variant for the term model. Chau (1984: 120) uses the term "model" to refer to a particular approach to curriculum planning.

2- Chafe (1976: 30) cited in Baker (1992: 152) uses the term "consciousness" to refer to this knowledge:
Given or old information is that knowledge which the speaker assumes to be in the consciousness of the addressee at the time of the utterance. So-called new information is what the speaker assumes he is introducing to the addressee's consciousness by what he says.
3- The other meaning of 'text' is that which is used by Hatim and Mason (1990) to refer to a unit of structure which is used in the service of an overall rhetorical purpose such as arguing or expounding.
4- Farghal (1993: 2) cited in Shunnaq (1994: 104) uses the expression "extrinsic management" to refer to the translator's intervention in the text to achieve his own goals, and he contrasts it with "intrinsic management" in which the translator resorts to alterations in order to make up for "mismatches" between the source language and the target language.
5 - Citing Cruse (1986), Baker distinguishes four major types of lexical meaning: propositional meaning, expressive meaning, presupposed meaning and evoked meaning (Baker 1992: 12-17).

Chapter IV

1) In this group there are Harris and Sherwood (1978), Toury (1974) and Lörscher (1986).
2) e.g. Hönig (1988a)
3) Diane Larson-Freeman (1986: XI) provides a clear definition of the term "method":
a method is seen as… comprising both principles and techniques... Taken together, the principles represent the theoretical framework of the method. The techniques are the behavioural manifestation of the principles; in other words, the classroom activities and procedures are derived from an application of the principles.
4) Communicative Method is the term used to describe teaching procedures which have developed in relation to Communicative Language Teaching. In this method, a lot of importance is attached to class activities that imitate the conditions of real life communication. One of the techniques used is that of information gap. The Communicative Method also subsumes the notions of language function and communicative competence.
5) According to Chau, this division into three areas is not necessarily the only one that is possible. There could be other possible ways for dealing with translation and translation teaching; "individual preferences on the part of the translation educator, former training and T/I experience, as well as the teaching context, undoubtedly would shape one's views to a considerable extent. Besides, the very nature of these models can be misleading. Anything so tidy and clear-cut can hardly reflect life... It is when there is a need to divide up teaching units and to sequence them that these models can serve as a possible solution."(Chau 1984: 158)
6) Translation:
"When one considers the present situation of translation in the teaching of languages in France, one has to admit that it is a pedagogy which has not evolved

throughout the centuries and which at all levels from the 6th form to the university can be summed up in the words ‘read–translate’. In secondary schools, this activity takes place at the end of classes in a hurried and almost a shy way.”

7) Translation:

“If we ask our students to translate, we rarely train them to carry out this activity in a systematic way. The problems dealt with in a translation class are most of time encountered by chance in different texts. As for the progression of the course, it most often corresponds to the global degree of difficulty of the passages to be translated.”

8) Both advocate the need first for a descriptive translation pedagogy (process-oriented research) that draws its principles and techniques from a precise description of translation processes (for instance, through Talk-Aloud-Protocols), and second the need for a merger of the cognitive processes (the psycholinguistic models of comprehension and production) with the pragmatics of translation. This, in their view, would enable students to rationalize their comprehension and translation processes and help them avoid making translation errors which very often stem from the use of unsuccessful mental processes.

However, while Kussmaul suggests combining the psycholinguistic model of comprehension with the pragmatics of translation and with componential analysis, Kiraly proposes a combined cognitive and social approach to translation activity which relies on evidence from TAPs and which does not resort to componential analysis. Kiraly is also more interested in the interaction between intuitive and controlled processes.

9) The variations of intentionality and register in Hatim’s representation are shown on one scale of markedness. In the representation given on page 130, however, the variations are shown on two scales of markedness, just to make things look clearer.

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